The Outlook

AUGUST 30, 1916

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THE STORY OF THE WAR: FIVE ALLIED NATIONS IN THE BALKANS

The surprise and sensation of the war news of the week (August 16–23) was the landing of Russian and Italian troops at Salonika, in Greece, to join in the "great push" of the Entente Allies against the Bulgarians and Austrians. In the army now moving north from Salonika along the two railways which lead to Monastir and Nish, and up the Vardar River toward the line between Nish and Sofia, there are now five nations represented—England, France, Servia, Italy, and Russia. It is even rumored that a sixth, Greece, has clashed with Bulgaria's forces at the eastern end of the battle-line, where those forces have been advancing near Seres and threatening an advance toward Kavala, on the Ægean Sea; it is also reported that orders have been sent by the Greek King to his forces to cease fighting. The fact is that Greek soldiers have not forgotten that Bulgar troops not long ago seized a Greek fort, and that it was then rumored that the Greek pro-German diplomats connived at it; the Greeks do not love the Bulgars, and a serious clash with them, followed by the entrance of Greece into the Entente Allies' ranks, is among the possibilities. Even more so is the often discussed entrance of Rumania into the war. Something like mobilization has been going on there; and there are many who think that the Allies' movement in the Balkan field and the advance of Russia through the Carpathians may make Rumania feel that her chance to choose the winning side has arrived.

No one knows how many Italians or Russians have been landed at Salonika; one report says that the Russians will eventually number eighty thousand. They are side by side with the Servians, who are rejoiced at the political as well as the military significance of this comradeship. As to the Italians, one result seems almost certain: if they fight Austrians on the Balkan line, they will be fighting Germans also, and then at last Italy will be at war with Germany. Italy has also a force at Avlona, in Albania, on the Adriatic coast. This force is at some distance from the Allies' main line, but might eventually co-operate or could move on Montenegro.

Whether the Balkan advance is really aimed at Nish—that is, on the direct rail line north to Servia—or northeastward to cut the line between Nish and Sofia, and thus cut off communication between Turkey on the south and Bulgaria on the northwest, is uncertain; if the latter, those express trains from Antwerp to Constantinople of which the Germans have justly boasted will cease. The movement is not well developed as we write. The Allies have captured some trenches and villages of the enemy. On the other hand, they have suffered from Bulgarian attacks at the extreme ends of their line east and west.

OTHER FIELDS OF WAR

Steady but slow progress is again to be noted on both eastern and western lines. Perhaps the most notable gains of Russia have been in its fighting in the Carpathian passes at Jablonitza and south of Kutz; as in their first great drive, the Russians are seriously threatening Hungary by their Carpathian advances; one report states that Russians are actually three miles over the line into Hungary. In Galicia and Volhynia new advances have been made which threaten Lemberg and Kovel—particularly the latter.

The British have fought hard to straighten the line between Pozières, which they took weeks ago, and Thiepval. Here is a dangerous German salient called the Leipsic salient. Last week the British got this in part, and also advanced toward Martinpuich, on the direct road to Bapaume. This gain is not, on the map, a great one, but in promise it is distinctly important. The French have also made progress in the Somme region; their chief achievement was occupying part of the village of Guillemont; the Germans are still fighting desperately in part of the place. In the Verdun field the French gained ground at and near Fleury and have even, it is said,

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attacked the Germans at Vaux; the latter would indicate a positive German recession. For weeks the Germans have not advanced their attack on Verdun an inch, and the assaults have almost all been from the French side.

THE RAILWAY CONTROVERSY

President Wilson's attempt to bring together the leaders of the brotherhoods and the railway official representatives continued up to the time of writing (August 23), with no definite result. The President's own statement of his original proposal made this comment on its chief feature:

> I have recommended the concession of the eight-hour day—that is, the substitution of an eight-hour day for the present ten-hour day in all the existing practices and agreements. I made this recommendation because I believe the concession right. The eight-hour day now, undoubtedly, has the sanction of the judgment of society in its favor, and should be adopted as a basis for wages, even where the actual work to be done cannot be completed within eight hours.

The other features of the proposal are thus described in the President's own words:

> I proposed that the demand for extra pay for overtime made by the men and the contingent proposals of the railroad authorities be postponed until facts shall have taken the place of calculation and forecast with regard to the effects of a change to the eight-hour day; that in the meantime, while experience was developing the facts, I should seek, and, if need be, obtain, authority from the Congress to appoint a small body of impartial men to observe and thoroughly acquaint themselves with the results, with a view to reporting to Congress at the earliest possible time the facts disclosed by their inquiries, but without recommendation of any kind; and that it should then be entirely open to either or both parties to the present controversy to give notice of a termination of the present agreements, with a view to instituting inquiry into suggested readjustments of pay or practice.

The attitude taken by the railway managers in regard to this whole plan was shown in the statement issued by Mr. Elisha Lee, the chairman of the managers' conference committee. Mr. Lee said: "It is inconceivable in a democracy like ours that the railroads should grant, under threat of a National strike, a $50,000,000 wage preferment to a small minority of their employees without a hearing before a public tribunal." The employees seem willing to arbitrate everything but the eight-hour demand. They say that they have always favored the Erdman-Newlands Law, but that after former arbitrations they have not got what the awar meant to give them, and that the eight-hc demand is basic.

As we write, the position seems to be that the managers' committee are awaiting the action of a sub-committee of their number who are trying to work out a counter-proposal to the demands of the employees. In response to the President's call, a large number of the presidents and other officials of the railways gathered last week in Washington. They are leaving the actual negotiations to their committee of managers, but many of them have been in personal conference with President Wilson. One point made by them is that only twenty per cent of all employees of all railways are represented by the brotherhoods, and that many thousands of other employees of railways involved have signed petitions opposed to the present demands. These include clerks, ticket-sellers, telegraphers, shopmen, switchmen, and others.

THE PROGRESS OF CONGRESS

By a vote of 37 to 22 the Senate on August 16 adopted the conference report on the Philippine Bill. All but one of those who voted against the measure were Republicans; the exception was Senator Lane, of Oregon. This bill increases largely the element of self-government in the political organization of the islands. It does not include the Clarke Amendment, which provided for the independence of the Philippines within at least four years from the passage of the measure. It does, however, in a preamble state that it is, and always has been, the intention of the United States to grant independence when a stable government has been established. The most important change in the structure of government is the abolition of the present Philippine Commission and the provision for a Philippine Senate. The Philippine electorate under the new bill will be increased from about two hundred thousand to about eight hundred thousand.

By a strictly party vote, the Senate has voted to authorize the Government to purchase or build merchant ships "for the purpose of developing and creating a naval auxiliary, a naval reserve, and a merchant

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marine to meet the requirements of the commerce of the United States." The differences between this Ship Purchasing Bill and that passed by the House in May will be harmonized by the customary joint conference committee. The bill provides for the creation of a shipping board and appropriates $50,000,000, to be raised by the sale of Panama Canal bonds. As adopted by the Senate, the measure is much more restricted in purpose than the bill which passed the House. The Senate bill provides that, among other things:

The Government is not to purchase any ship flying the flag of a belligerent nation or any ship already engaged in American trade unless it is about to be withdrawn from that trade.

The Government must not undertake to operate merchant ships unless all efforts fail to negotiate satisfactory leases or sales to private corporations. The Government reserves the right to prescribe conditions under which its ships shall be operated by private concerns and in what service they shall engage.

An amendment offered by Senator Borah and backed by the Republicans was as excellent an example of a Congressional "rider" as we have seen in some time. Mr. Borah asked that it be provided that "no ship purchased under the Act should carry any immigrant who could not read or write." This amendment was defeated by 37 to 20. Two Democrats, Senator Ashurst, of Arizona, and Senator Myers, of Montana, were the only representatives of their party to vote for it. Apparently the purpose of this rider was as much to get the Democrats on record in regard to the literacy feature of the Immigration Bill as any expectation or hope that it would be accepted.

It seems to The Outlook that, while some of the objections to the earlier Shipping Bill have been eliminated from the present measure, the fundamental reasons for opposing it have not been changed. The cost of construction at this time and the complications which must necessarily arise from initiating so drastic an experiment in Government ownership seem to us to make this measure absolutely undesirable.

The third incident of note in the history of the past week in Congress was the revolt of ten Democrats who joined with the Republicans to secure a vote on the immigration measure, which the President has already vetoed. It has been the desire of the Administration forces to avoid another vote on this bill until after the election. The likelihood that the Administration would be embarrassed in this way was decreased when, on the day following this revolt, five of the ten Democrats who voted with the Republicans reversed themselves and voted to give the revenue bill the right of way over the Immigration Bill. Two of the five who continued to vote with the Republicans were the Senators from Arizona and Montana who supported Senator Borah in his amendment to the Shipping Bill to which we have already referred.

The Senate during the past week also passed the Workmen's Compensation Bill for Federal employees practically in the form in which it passed the House. The measure would grant Federal employees two-thirds of their regular wages throughout disability, benefits for dependents in case of death, and medical attendance during the period of disability. The bill was drafted by the American Association for Labor Legislation, of which Professor Irving Fisher, of Yale, is President.

THE PRESIDENT VETOES THE ARMY BILL

The most dramatic feature of the Congressional history of last week was the veto by the President of the Army Appropriation Bill. The bill as passed by Congress included a revision of the Articles of War, the code of rules which govern the discipline of the armies of the United States and all persons subject to military law. The War Department has for a long time attempted to secure a revision of the Articles of War, and the present legislation is the result of this endeavor. Unfortunately, the Articles of War as accepted by the War Department underwent a revision in Congress for which Mr. Hay was responsible. It was this revision which aroused the President and caused his veto of the entire bill. In returning the bill to the House President Wilson said:

The existing Articles of War are undoubtedly archaic, as they have not undergone comprehensive revision for more than one hundred years. . . . Both the practice of arms and the theory of discipline have undergone many modern changes, and manifest need for such revision of these articles as is here presented has long existed. Therefore I more keenly regret to find in the proposed revision of the Articles of War a provision to which I cannot give my approval.

The provision to which the President objected was the exemption of officers upon the

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retired list from military discipline. The President points out that both courts and attorneys-general have in a long line of decisions held that officers of the army on the retired list hold public office. He also points out that Congress has specifically declared that officers on the retired list are a part of the regular army, and available for certain classes of active duty in time of peace, with their consent, and, in time of war, without their consent. The President then says:

> The purpose of the Articles of War in times of peace is to bring about a uniformity in application of military discipline, which will make the entire organization coherent and effective and to engender a spirit of co-operation and proper subordination to authority which will in time of war instantly make the entire army a unit in its purpose of self-sacrifice and devotion to duty in the National defense. These purposes cannot be accomplished if retired officers, still a part of the military establishment, still relied upon to perform important duties, are excluded, upon retirement, from the wholesome and unifying effect of this subjection to common discipline. I am persuaded that officers upon the retired list would themselves regard this as an invidious and unpalatable discrimination, which, in effect, excluded them from full membership in the profession to which they have devoted their lives, and of which by the laws of their country they are still members. . . . I am constrained to return this bill without my approval.

The President in thus vetoing the Army Bill has, in our opinion, done well. The Presidential veto is too often withheld from bills which contain clauses of doubtful value or even of pernicious import. If Congress could learn by experience that the insertion of riders and amendments foreign to the purpose of great measures would inevitably bring about a Presidential veto, a great step towards improvement in legislative procedure would have been made. Because of the present international situation the temptation to accept the Army Bill at this present time was doubtless a serious one. From present indications, however, the President's veto will not cause any really serious delay in the enactment of the measure as a whole.

Perhaps it may be appropriate to point out here that the complete control by the President, as Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy, over the actions of the officers in the two services has at times been used to the disadvantage of the public. It is entirely proper for the President and his Secretaries to suppress criticism of superior officers. Indeed, the prohibition of such criticism is one of the most important parts of the Articles of War. There is a difference between the suppression of such criticism, however, and the suppression of the discussion of technical matters by experts in the army and navy, from whom the people of the United States must learn, if they are to learn at all, what are our naval and military needs. Perhaps the most flagrant example in recent years of such misinterpretation of executive authority was the suppression by Secretary Daniels of the writings of Admiral Fiske. This is not the only example, by any means, of the unfortunate exercise of executive discipline which has taken place during the past four years.

AN IMPORTANT SENATORIAL CONTEST

There is a contest in the Republican party of the State of New York regarding its candidate for the United States Senate which is of more than ordinary National interest. The candidate of the regular organization is Congressman William L. Calder. Mr. Calder has had a long political experience of a somewhat conventional type. He has served several terms in Congress, is a successful business man, and, to quote the words of that well-informed organization Republican Mr. Lemuel Ely Quigg, "has been for three years a candidate for the Senate. . . . He may not know all the diplomats of Europe, but he knows all the elements that are comprehended in American life. In his aspirations to be Senator he has consulted all these elements all over this State; and, if he has shaken hands a good deal, he has won hearts with hands. . . . As between Mr. Bacon and Mr. Calder, the man who has shaken hands is the safer candidate and would be the more competent Senator."

This does not strike us as being a very statesmanlike platform for a United States Senator, although we must admit that it is typical of a certain phase of American politics which we think is slowly but surely passing into the background.

Mr. Calder's opponent for the Republican nomination is Robert Bacon. Mr. Bacon was formerly a banker, was Assistant Secretary of State under Elihu Root in the last Roosevelt Administration, and was Secretary of State during the final weeks of that Administration. He was our Ambassador to France

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for three years, from December, 1909, to January, 1912. During the past year or two he has taken a very prominent and active part in the National preparedness movement, being at the present time President of the National Security League. In a statement which Mr. Bacon has issued, and which constitutes the platform upon which he seeks the suffrages of his fellow-citizens, he says :

There is to-day no more important National need than a better knowledge of the rights and duties imposed by international law; rights which we should have the courage to enforce, and duties which we should have the spirit to perform.

Between nations, as between individuals, there must be laws so moral and far-reaching in conception, so sanctioned in national conscience and material readiness, as to place their enforcement beyond doubt. These laws should control and regulate the conduct of every nation, large or small, rich or poor, strong or weak, in its relations with every other nation.

In order to maintain this policy of international rights and international duties, he regards preparedness as one of the great political issues of the day. He defines the essential elements of preparedness as (1) universal obligatory military training and service; and (2) training and service in the broader field of National industrial efficiency. We share Mr. Bacon's view. We believe that the great political problems which this country is facing are international problems. Mr. Bacon's perception and formulation of these problems are statesmanlike. His training as an important National executive and as international Ambassador has given him the experience necessary for dealing with these problems. We mean no reflection upon Mr. Calder's good citizenship or useful service as a legislator when we say that under the special exigency which confronts the Nation we should suppose that the Republicans of the State of New York would have no hesitation in naming Mr. Bacon as their Senatorial choice on the ground that his statesmanlike platform, his training and experience, and his personality make him an unusual candidate.

THE ADMINISTRATION AND THE SISAL MONOPOLY

About eighty per cent of the world's supply of sisal hemp comes from Yucatan, Mexico. Sisal hemp, which is derived from the henequen plant, is used almost entirely in the making of binder twine, the cord with which the farmers of the United States fasten into sheaves most of their grain crops. In ordinary times the world can count on an output of about 130,000 bales of sisal hemp annually from German East Africa, which is the largest source of sisal after Yucatan, but at present the East African output of this commodity is unavailable owing to the war.

Not only do the farmers of the United States depend almost entirely on the sisal crops of Yucatan for their binder twine, but the sisal growers, on their part, depend almost entirely upon the American farmers for their market. Of the million bales of sisal which constitute the average annual crop in Yucatan, about 975,000 bales go to the United States.

Until about a year ago the sisal planters sold their crop either to American manufacturers, who converted it into twine, or to American brokers and jobbers, from whom it was bought by the manufacturers. But about a year ago the Government of the State of Yucatan established a Government monopoly of this principal product of the State. The management of this monopoly has been in the hands of a body known as the Comision Reguladora del Mercado de Henequen. This Commission has had the support of a group of American bankers, and has required all the growers of sisal in Yucatan to turn over their product to it under martial law. This product the Reguladora, as it is commonly called, then sells directly to American manufacturers from the Commission's office in New York City, thus eliminating American brokers and middlemen from their former share in the transaction.

Very soon after the establishment of this Government monopoly complaints against it were heard in this country, both from these eliminated middlemen and from the International Harvester Company and the Plymouth Cordage Company, two concerns which prior to the establishment of the Yucatan Government monopoly had controlled about sixty-five or seventy per cent of the output of henequen. The complaints against the Reguladora have been, in general, twofold: First, it was said that the Reguladora was a monopoly in restraint of trade, and that its operations in this country through its New York office and through its affiliated American bankers constituted a violation of the anti-trust laws of the United States. Secondly, it has been charged that the rapid increase in the price of sisal since the Reguladora took control has been almost

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entirely arbitrary, and has been mainly unjustified by economic conditions. Certainly it is a fact that the farmers of the United States, as a result of this increase in the price of sisal hemp, were this year forced to pay at least $4,000,000 more for their binder twine than they paid last year, and that if the still further increase in price which the Reguladora has recently announced is maintained the American farmers will be subjected to an additional expense of about $10,000,000 next year.

On the other hand, The Outlook has been informed by Dr. Victor Rendon, American representative of the Reguladora, that this increase in price has been entirely justified by a number of economic conditions, including the increased cost of living to the Yucatan planters and the increased price of Manila hemp and New Zealand hemp, two commodities which to a certain extent compete with sisal. Dr. Rendon admits that the Reguladora's methods constitute a monopoly, but contends that there is no restraint of trade. And he declares that any profits from the sale of sisal which may remain in the treasury of the Reguladora at the conclusion of the first year of control will be divided among the henequen growers of Yucatan.

As a result of the complaints against this monopoly, a sub-committee of the United States Senate Committee on Agriculture and Forestry began an investigation of the Reguladora last February. This Committee, after a number of hearings, adjourned in March, reconvened in April, and readjourned in that same month. Many witnesses were examined by this Committee and a vast amount of evidence was heard. Yet no report has been made.

Some critics of the Administration have boldly alleged that the Committee's report has been withheld because such a report would be inimical to the Reguladora, and consequently embarrassing to the Administration which has supported the Carranza Governernment and its institutions, of which the Reguladora is an important one. These critics intimate that it is their belief that the Senate Committee will make no report until after the American elections in November.

It seems to The Outlook that the Administration cannot afford to ignore such charges as these. The self-respect of the Administration demands that these attacks be met fairly and squarely. The obvious way to meet them is for the Senate Committee which has been investigating the sisal monopoly to publish its report with no further delay. This would silence the allegations that the report has been withheld for sinister political reasons, and it would furnish much-needed information to thousands of Americans who are vitally affected by the monopoly in sisal hemp.

THE ELEPHANT BUTTE DAM

The Elephant Butte Dam, which is shown in a photograph in the pictorial section of this issue, blocks up the Rio Grande one hundred and twenty miles north of El Paso, forming the greatest storage reservoir in the world.

Work on the dam was begun five years ago. This is the fifth big reclamation project to be completed by the Government. The reservoir will hold one hundred and fifteen billion cubic feet of water—enough to cover the entire State of Delaware to a depth of two feet and enough to water one hundred and eighty-five thousand acres of blistering land in western Texas, southern New Mexico, and northern Chihuahua—for the Mexicans are to share the benefits of this project, although they do not share its burdens. For this they can thank an old treaty between Mexico and the United States, providing that the two countries were to have some sort of divided share in the control of the head-waters of the Rio Grande.

The dam is as big as its name suggests. It is 318 feet high, 1,674 feet long, 235 feet thick at the base, and tapers up to a top only sixteen feet thick, along which runs a roadway. The reservoir will irrigate territory lying in four valleys, and for each of these valleys a diversion dam and main canals are being constructed. The Mexican territory to be benefited is 25,000 acres of land near Juarez.

Before the Government began to build the dam it laid out a model town, with theater, hotel, hospital, schools, electric lights, and up-to-date sanitary system.

AMERICA'S PRESENT BULGING PURSE

For the year July, 1915, to July, 1916, our trade with the nations has been the largest in our history. Nor is this all. It is ahead of any record ever made by any other country.

Though the war has annihilated our direct exports to Germany, Austria, Turkey, and Bulgaria, some of the loss to these countries has been offset by indirect exportation to them. And though the war has sadly inter-

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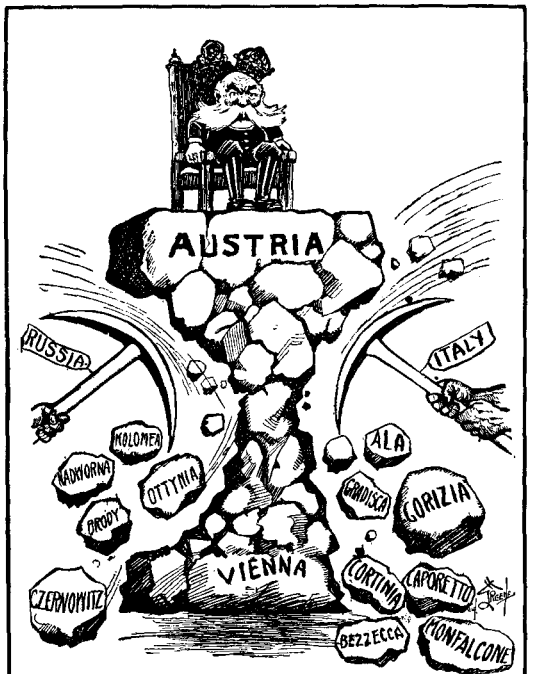
CARTOONS OF THE WEEK

Greene in the New York Evening Telegram



TOTTERING!

Cesare in the New York Evening Post

IVAN'S NEW ROLLERS

THE PROGRESS OF THE WAR

From the Bystander (London)

NO GROUNDS FOR COMPLAINT

"I don't know why the men grumble. This soup is really excellent."
"They wouldn't grumble, sir, if the cook would admit it to be soup. He insists that it is *coffee*.'"

THE COMMISSARIAT IN TROUBLE

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CARTOONS OF THE WEEK

Cesare in the New York Evening Post

IN TIME?

Ireland in the Columbus Evening Dispatch

HAVENT I ANY RIGHTS?
HOW ABOUT MY RIGHTS?
WHAT ABOUT MY RIGHTS?
THE REST OF THE 110,000,000 PEOPLE OF THE U.S.
RAILROAD BROTHERHOODS
THE RAILROADS

THE BIG FELLOW PAYS THE FREIGHT

APROPOS OF THE THREATENED RAILWAY STRIKE

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fered with certain lines of commerce with the Entente Powers, yet it has caused most of the mighty increase in exports.

This has been shown in our new business in iron, steel, copper, brass, machinery, explosives, and chemicals, which have gone directly into war use, and the exports of which amount to a third of the total. It has also been shown in the other two-thirds of the total, which comprise exports employed both in war and peace—breadstuffs, meats, cotton goods, sugar, leather, glassware, automobiles, horses, etc.

Striking as are the immense increases in these exports, let us remember that they are due to the exigencies abroad, not to the two attractions over which we have control—namely, quality and price—the only guarantees of permanence in commercial prestige.

Now, turning to imports, many will, we think, be surprised to find that, though Germany, Austria, and Belgium have sent us nothing, and though France and Italy have sent us little, our imports have increased by no less than half a billion dollars—a third as much as our huge export increase. This again is due largely to the war. In order to export some commodities we have to import the raw product. Sugar is a good instance; to export the refined sugar we must still import much of the raw, despite the growth of our own beet-sugar industry.

What we need to ponder over is, not our temporary prosperity, but our country's economic position when the war is over. We must be prepared to consider the question whether our markets may not then be besieged by the products which Europe may be exporting at any prices—no matter how low—that will win back lost trade.

ADVERTISING AND THE WAR

Those who have been in Canada since the outbreak of the great war know how extensive has been the use of the poster advertisements in the securing of recruits for "Our Lady of the Snows." Save in printing and form the posters used, however, represent no particular departure from tradition. The recruiting poster we always have with us, and in language and purpose the present-day appeal does not differ very largely from the crudely drawn and extravagantly worded posters which served to draw men into the Continental army under Washington. The old appeal for recruits to learn the polite accomplishments of a soldier and to secure an opportunity of seeing the world still exists, and probably always will, in countries which depend upon the volunteer system rather than upon the more just and democratic system of universal service.

In England during the present war, as we learn from an Associated Press despatch, under the leadership of Sir Hedley Le Bas, the head of a large publishing house in London, the work of poster advertising has been developed far beyond its original scope.

Not only have men and women been urged to turn their savings over to the Government—and it has been estimated that one hundred million pounds have been contributed by the working classes of Great Britain alone—but the personal habits of English men and women have been subject to this public form of advice and admonition.

"To dress extravagantly in war time is worse than bad form—it is unpatriotic," reads one poster. Again, the British public have been told that "new clothes should only be bought when absolutely necessary, and these should be durable and suitable for all occasions. Luxurious forms of hats, boots, shoes, stockings, gloves, and veils should be avoided." A direct appeal for help is the following:

> You are helping the Germans when you use a motor car for pleasure, when you employ more servants than you need, when you waste coal, electric light, or gas, when you eat and drink more than is necessary to your health and efficiency. Set the right example, free labor for more useful purposes, save money and lend it to the nation, and so help your country.

In an interview with the correspondent of the Associated Press, Sir Hedley commented upon this advertising campaign as follows: "It was hard to bring the conservative British mind to accept such a radical departure," he said. "Many declared that it was undignified for a government to advertise. . . . The idea of a government telling a woman that she was buying too many hats and expensive clothes . . . shocked them. . . . My idea is to put out advertisements that have in them what you Americans call 'punch.' Successful businesses conduct their concerns that way. Why shouldn't a government do the same?"

THE IMMIGRATION OF THE YEAR

A year ago it was pointed out in our review of the immigration for the year that

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in no other year in the course of two generations had the addition to the alien population of the country been so small. It was urged that before the country adopted a policy so radical as that of restriction advantage should be taken of the opportunity to study the effects of such a course. Two years have now passed since the beginning of the war. Immigration still is drastically curtailed.

While the net immigration in the year which closed July 1 was 125,941, as compared with 50,070 in 1915, the actual number of aliens who applied for admission, 366,748, was smaller than in the previous year by approximately 70,000. The reason for the greater actual increase in the alien population is due to the smaller number of those returning home. Immigration, of course, was largely from countries having access to the Atlantic Ocean. Nine racial groups—Dutch, Flemish, English, French, Irish, Finnish, Scandinavian, Scotch, and German—furnished nearly one-half of the immigrants, the remainder being scattered through thirty-one racial classifications. The chief contributions, aside from those of northwestern Europe, were Italian, Greek, Portuguese, Spanish, and Mexican. With the exception of the Italian, the totals of these nationalities were relatively high. Never before in a single year have so many Portuguese emigrated to the United States. There were about 13,000 of them, which was also the number of Spaniards. There were more than 22,000 Mexicans.

The effect of the continued curtailment of immigration has been felt particularly in the labor market. Unskilled workers have been in such demand that they have been able to get employment at wages ranging from $2.25 to $2.50 for an eight-hour day, while available household servants have been asking and receiving a fifty per cent increase over the wages paid a year ago. Some railway companies have been employing Southern Negroes and Mexicans in place of the Italian and Polish track hands who have left them to fight for their native country or to secure higher wages. Farm labor has gone up fifty per cent. The applications for help received by social relief organizations in New York City have fallen to less than half the total of a year ago. Most of the requests for relief have been due to illness, accidents, and for the care of alien widows.

American steamship agents are forecasting an exodus of at least 1,000,000 Hungarians, Poles, Austrians, Lithuanians, Bohemians, Germans, and other natives of Central Europe as soon as peace is declared. Their estimate is based on reports from sub-agents in different parts of the country, who say that many are making deposits and saving money for the purchase of tickets. These prospective emigrant aliens are anxious to see relatives and friends from whom they have heard little since the war broke out, and to look after property. Many of them—one-half, it is estimated—will remain to help rebuild their native countries. For this reason it is believed that, with the exception of the harassed Jews of the Pale and Poland, there will be a small emigration to America. It is thought that the governments of the exhausted countries will take steps to keep their nationals at home. Great Britain, it is said, is planning to distribute to her colonies after the war the millions of soldiery which she has trained. This report speaks well for the military sagacity of Great Britain.

THE RAILWAY DISPUTE

It is said that extremely complicated details make it almost impossible for the average layman to understand the claims of the organized railway trainmen and the objections of the railway employers in their present National controversy. This is doubtless true. But it is not impossible for the average layman to understand the great industrial crisis which the country is facing.

After having spent many weeks, if not months, in negotiating with the railway managers, the railway unions made certain demands regarding increased pay and hours and conditions of work to which they insisted upon an immediate assent. The employers assert that they desire to arbitrate the differences; the men assert that they are willing to submit certain differences to arbitration, but that there are some which cannot be arbitrated. The result is a threatened general railway strike. Such a strike would paralyze the social and industrial life of the country. As a disaster it could be second only to a great civil war. Under these circumstances the President of the United States very properly summoned both sides before him, listened to their statements, and suggested a temporary basis by which the strike can be averted.

Before the President's proposals can be

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clearly understood, it is necessary to attempt to understand, at least in general outline, the demands of the men and the grounds on which the managers refuse those demands.

The President's language with regard to the threatened strike has led, we think, to some misconceptions. The President has implied that the question is one of the eight-hour day, and has intimated that since the eight-hour day has been steadily and widely introduced into industry it would not be unreasonable for the railways to adopt it. The railways, however, cannot adopt the eight-hour day in the ordinary sense of that term. A mill or factory which employs its men during the daytime and shuts down at night can adopt the eight-hour day. If it is a mill that runs night and day, it can employ three shifts, and can pay its workmen a full day's pay for eight hours' work. But a transcontinental freight train cannot change its crew in the middle of a prairie. Thus trainmen often have to be on their trains for more than eight hours at a time. Trainmen are paid by a mathematical formula in which the number of hours of work constitutes only one, although the most important, factor. On most, if not all, of the railways of the United States the hour factor is now ten. What the men ask is that the hour factor shall be changed to eight; not that they shall simply work eight hours and then cease work, which would, of course, be physically impossible. They also demand that they receive a larger amount of extra pay for all the time they work over eight hours than they now receive for the time they work over ten hours. If a man is now paid $5 a day for a run of ten hours or less, he would receive $5 for eight hours under the new schedule. If he worked two more hours to complete his run, he would receive $1.25 for overtime; thus he would be paid $6.25 for the ten hours for which he formerly received $5. Such increases as these the railway managers claim would impose an additional burden of $50,000,000 a year in labor cost on the railways.

President Wilson has not undertaken to decide, it must be remembered, whether the demands of the men are just or whether the refusal of the managers is unjust. He is, in a grave emergency, proposing a settlement or a *modus vivendi* to avert a terrible strike. The managers say that they are willing to arbitrate all the questions at issue. The men reply that they cannot submit to arbitration, and continue to remain meantime in the *status quo*. The President's proposal is in the nature of a compromise. He asks the managers to make the time factor in the pay formula eight hours instead of ten hours, to run the railways on this new basis, paying whatever cost may be involved, while a specially appointed body can investigate the whole situation and report whether the demands of the men are just or whether the railways can afford the increase of labor cost. The managers reply that if, even as a temporary measure, the men are paid on an eight-hour basis, no act of the Government or of the railways can put it back to a ten-hour basis. In this we think they are probably right, and the only result of the investigation of the Board proposed by the President will be to determine whether the railways can pay the additional labor cost out of their present earnings, or whether they must be permitted by the Government to increase their charges to shippers to meet either the whole or a part of the increase. The railway managers say, we think with justice, that they should not be compelled to increase wages without a very careful consideration by the Government of their right to increase rates with which to meet those wages.

This, in outline, is the controversy as we understand it. The President rightly says that a permanent basis cannot be determined in a week, but that some action must be taken within a week to avert a terrible strike. It is begging the question to say that he ought now to outline a basis of permanent action. His duty is to persuade the men and the managers to go on running the railways until the Government can take the necessary time to frame a permanent basis of action. In order to get the men and the managers to continue running their trains he has either to persuade the men to accept the *status quo* for some time to come or persuade the managers to accept eight hours as the standard factor of a day's pay. We are inclined to think that in choosing the latter course he has taken the easiest, and therefore the most expedient, method of averting the danger of a strike. The chances of persuading the managers to accept eight hours as a standard seem to us better than the chances of getting the men to accept the *status quo*.

If he should avert the strike, the President's work would be only partly done. He has provided temporary relief, but not a permanent cure. It will require the best indus-

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trial statesmanship that the country possesses to establish a permanent system of avoiding railway strikes in the future. The first step in this direction is the creation of a board which shall get all the facts and make them public.

WHEN WILL PEACE COME?

The leaders in the movement for the division of this Nation in 1860 had a vision of a feudal republic extending from the Ohio River to the equator, founded on slavery as its chief corner-stone. Representatives of this movement argued that Negroes were only higher animals; that the interests of civilization required two classes in society, one endowed with brains to do its thinking, the other with muscles to do its drudgery; that slavery was justified by the Bible and was a fulfillment of Noah's curse of Canaan—"cursed be Canaan; a servant of servants shall he be unto his brethren;" that while the public sentiment of the world might be opposed to slavery, it was the mission of the South to correct this world-wide error.

It is a mistake, however, to suppose that this was the general sentiment among the slaveholders of the South. Southerners accepted slavery as a fact to which they were accustomed. When they thought about it at all, they thought it could be improved in certain particulars, but they knew that it could not be overthrown except by a radical revolution. They took it for granted, as we generally take for granted the conditions of our life.

When Abraham Lincoln was elected, Southern leaders told their people that this was the beginning of a campaign for the abolition of slavery and the dreaded revolution which would accompany that abolition. In support of this affirmation they could cite inflammatory appeals from Northern abolitionists; could point to the attempt of John Brown to arouse the slaves to insurrection; could recall the horrors of Negro rule in Haiti; could and did urge the South not to await an invasion, but to prepare against it by instant demand for separation. And they united the South, not because the Southern people were obsessed by their leaders' hope of a slave empire, but because they were persuaded that their peace, property, and prosperity depended on separation. The people fought throughout the Civil War what they believed was a purely defensive warfare.

The Germans are a peaceful and industrious people, but they have always lived under an autocratic government and they know no other. They have been governed; self-government, in the American sense of that term, they have never known. The state has been everything, the individual nothing. They have known no other state than a military state. Other lands have had their heroic defenders of individual liberty—America its Washington, Ireland its O'Connell, England its Cromwell, France its Lafayette, Italy its Garibaldi, Hungary its Kossuth; but Germany—? What name is there with which to fill that blank? What hero in German history has dared, not merely to sacrifice himself, but to lead a forlorn hope against Imperial despotism?

The German leaders have with brutal frankness taught their philosophy and proclaimed their purpose. Their philosophy is that war is a biological and moral necessity; that only the strong nation has a right to live; that only the sword gives strength; that Germany has a monopoly of *Kultur*. Their purpose is to impose German *Kultur* on other nations by force, as in the Middle Ages religion was imposed on the heretical peoples by force; to make Germany over all and employ her navy and her army to make her over all.

But the German people have no more been obsessed by this fanaticism than were the people of the South obsessed by the vision of a slave empire in 1860. They have taken militarism for granted, as most people take the existing conditions of their daily life for granted. They have been easily persuaded that their great superiority had aroused the jealousy of their neighbors, and that not only their state and their homes, but that the civilization of which they were the custodians, was threatened by France, England, and Russia. The war lords have initiated an attack on Europe and persuaded the people that Europe has initiated an attack on Germany, as the secession leaders initiated an attack on the American Nation and persuaded the Southern people that the American Nation had initiated an attack on the South.

The South was not conquered until it was converted. It took nearly a year and a half to convince the North that Lincoln was right when he said that the Nation could not permanently live half slave and half free. Two

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more years of war were required to convince the Southern people of the fatal error of their leaders. When in 1864 prominent Southern leaders began to urge the enlistment of slaves in the Confederate army, slavery was doomed; and when slavery was doomed the reason for secession disappeared. Howell Cobb was right: "The day you make soldiers of them," he wrote, "is the beginning of the end of the revolution."

Germany will be conquered when Germany is converted. Militarism is a spirit, not merely a form of government, and a spirit can never be changed by conquest, only by conversion; never by force from without, only by a revolution within. There are evident signs that this revolution in public sentiment has begun; that the German people are losing their faith in militarism, losing their faith both in the omniscience and omnipotence of the state. This evidence is seen in such publications as "J'Accuse" and "Because I Am a German;" in the growing boldness of the Socialistic protests against the conduct of the war; in the growing demands in various quarters for peace; in riots which there is good reason to believe are more serious than as reported; in the apparent readiness of the Government to relinquish the conquest of Belgium and allow its right to exist; in the apologetic defenses of the Government by high officials and their appeals to the people to maintain their courage; and in the apparent abandonment by the war party of its militaristic philosophy as interpreted by such writers as Bernhardi.

The Outlook is not looking to the western front, the eastern front, or the Balkans for the determination of this war. It is looking to the growing change in German public opinion, the news of which is allowed to sift through private letters and uncensored telegraph reports. Two weeks after the outbreak of the war The Outlook said: "We believe with Hegel that God has a plan and that history is nothing but the working out of his plan in human affairs. And we believe that the Austrian Prime Minister and the German Emperor have made a fatal mistake in leaving this truth out of their reckoning in their endeavor to destroy the great democratic movement in Europe." That faith we repeat. The end of this war will come with the end of militarism, not before. And the end of militarism will come when the German people realize the fatal blunder of the war lords, the falsity of their philosophy, and the futile malice of their purpose. It may come only gradually as the wearing away of the German forces convinces the German people that militarism has failed; it may come suddenly with a disaster to German arms so overwhelming that no explanation can destroy its effect on the mind of the German people. But it will come in Germany, as it came in our own country, when the ambitious hopes of the leaders are destroyed and the people awake to the truth.

MANNERS IN A DEMOCRACY

Democracies are suspicious of accumulations of any kind, whether of civilization or of money. They distrust banks and manners—the first because they mass savings instead of distributing them, the second because they are regarded as the expressions of conservatism, the signs of privilege. As a matter of fact, civilization is necessarily cumulative. It is capitalized experience. It involves leisure to try experiments, to invent new methods, to embellish and beautify that which is built on foundations already laid. Without the massing of capital which banks represent, vast enterprises imperatively demanded by modern conditions would be impossible. The fact that banks are sometimes oppressive gives no more ground for undiscriminating condemnation than does the fact that the law of cause and effect sometimes bears with cruelty on innocent persons.

Conventions are often the arbitrary creations of social classes, but manners are the flowering of fine character, wide contact with men and women, the enrichment of individuals by assimilation of the best that men have achieved. It is a wholly false idea of democracy which breeds suspicion of manners and identifies independence with rudeness and crudity. The man who prides himself on his plainness and bluntness as the signs of the honesty and sincerity of his nature is, generally speaking, the man who lacks consideration for others, and who has become the victim of a repellent form of egotism.

Honesty and bad manners have no real kinship. It is a curious fact that the peoples which are defective in politeness, like the Americans, the English, and the Germans, suspect the sincerity of the polite races, like the Latins and the Orientals. They fail to take into account the ripening power of antiquity. An American once went into a

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banking office in Damascus. The banker spoke English readily, and the two fell into animated conversation. Finally the man of the ancient city asked the man of one of the most active modern cities what he thought was the most obvious difference between Damascus and New York? After a moment's thought, the American answered, "The difference in speed." "You mean," said the Oriental, "the lack of hustle in Damascus. We tried hustle a thousand years ago, and found that there was nothing in it for us and gave it up." The polite East has discovered many things which the West has still to learn, simply because it has been trying experiments in the art of living so much longer.

Mr. Bryce has said more than once that Americans do not appreciate how much they owe to the spirit of helpfulness and hopefulness in the air of this country. These are pioneer qualities. Hopefulness is the characteristic of the man who faces the hazards of fortune in a new country, and helpfulness becomes the habit of people who live in remote and scattered communities. It is not too much to say that the instinctive feeling of the American in any disaster is to hold out a hand to those who are suffering. Any appeal for aid in time of flood, fire, pestilence, famine, or earthquake meets with an instant and generous response not only of money but of help. Helpfulness is a National habit.

The American to whom a European commented on the number of vulgarians traveling in the Old World promptly replied: "Yes, Europe is full of vulgar Americans. There are no more vulgarians in America than in England or France or Germany; but they have means, they love to travel, and they have grown up without recognizing any authority in the conventions and habits of social superiors. They hold themselves the equals of the best people in their communities, and they act in the cultivated capitals of Europe precisely as they act in their home villages. There is this difference, however, between the American vulgarian and his European brother. The American is kindly in his attitude toward his fellows. He often has no manners, he is intrusive and rude, but he would rather oblige another than not. His instinctive attitude towards women is respectful and courteous, and he will always protect a child."

But, while the typical American has the root of good manners in himself, it must be confessed that as a nation Americans are decidedly lacking in some of the finer qualities of human intercourse. This is true in spite of many exceptions. It is true in spite of the fact that there are whole sections of the country in which courteous manners are very general. Manners in the South, for example, are better than manners in the North or in the West. The New York "Times" reports that a Western school superintendent recently introduced two hours a week instruction in manners, and nearly lost his position. He was too far in advance of his time and his locality. There are very few subjects which can be so effectively taught as the practice of good manners; and they ought to be taught, as the use of English ought to be taught, not as a matter of book instruction, but as a part of every school exercise. Very much depends upon the teacher who furnishes the atmosphere of the school-room. There are teachers in whose presence the use of good English becomes instinctive, and who bring into all the relationships of their pupils courtesy, kindness, and consideration. Slovenliness is far too prevalent in this country, and bad English is one of its most unattractive forms. Directness, simplicity, and sincerity are not artificial; they are the characteristic qualities of the best English, and they are also the special qualities of good manners. The rude man lacks social language just as much as the man who uses slovenly English lacks the ability to express himself freely and clearly.

Not only are good manners not undemocratic, they are more essential in a democracy than in any other form of society; for, instead of being mere social conventions, they are the expression of respect for the dignity and integrity of others, and that is the very soul of the democratic order. In a society in which every man and woman is free to think, to speak, and to act, there is far greater necessity for self-imposed restraint than in a society in which people are kept in their places by a force imposed from above. Political freedom is only the beginning of freedom, and many intelligent and not unsympathetic foreign students have said that there is less personal freedom in the United States than in any other country of the first rank, that the pressure of public opinion here is tyrannical and does not tolerate freedom of individual opinion. Democracy has its dangers quite as much as absolutism, and its tyranny may be quite as oppressive. The

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ruthless disregard of privacy in this country is one of the forms which this tyranny has taken on, and the invasion of privacy is one of the worst forms of bad manners. Respect and consideration for others is a prime necessity in a crowd, which is always in danger of becoming a mob.

There are, fortunately, various signs of the growing recognition of the fact that good manners, instead of being undemocratic, are the evidence of a finer civilization. In all the higher forms of business courtesy is as necessary as ability or character. It was the absence of this quality years ago in the bearing of many railway managers toward the public which contributed greatly to stirring up public antagonism. Now, on many railways, employees are warned that rudeness will be met with prompt dismissal, and that courtesy will be counted among the qualities which lead to promotion. The rudeness which makes local travel in some large cities so disagreeable is largely induced by passengers. There are many rude conductors, but it is idle to criticise them so long as they themselves are treated with gross discourtesy.

Lowell said that we were the most public-schooled and the least educated people in the world. If the practice of good manners is made a part of the instruction in the public schools, Americans will take a long step toward a real education.

THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CONVENTION

We give on another page a report of the opening meeting of the fifteenth annual Convention of the American Federation of Catholic Societies, which began in New York City on Sunday, August 20; and we take this occasion to express our appreciation of the service which that Church is rendering to the people of this country, and our indignation at the scurrilous, wholesale, and malignant attacks leveled against it in certain quarters by unscrupulous partisan opponents. We accept neither the authority nor the theology of the Roman Catholic Church, but this does not prevent our honoring those who do accept that authority and that theology, and who are using them as instruments to develop the higher and better life of the American people.

The spirit of faith, hope, and charity is in all American churches—Roman Catholic and Protestant, Jewish and Christian. But in them all it is found, to use Paul's figure, "in earthen vessels." He who can see only the earthiness of the vessel, and cannot discern the spirit of reverence and service within, shows himself blind to the great spiritual realities, and this whether his attack is leveled against the Roman Catholic Church, the Protestant churches, or the Jewish synagogues.

Governor Whitman uttered a very fundamental truth when he said at Sunday's great meeting of the Catholic Federation of Churches: "It is not the nation that makes a people free, but the people that make the nation free. Just so, it is not the government that can make the people good, but the people that can make the government good."

The churches and synagogues in America, the societies for ethical culture, and the social settlements are all engaged in an endeavor to make the people good, or rather to help them to make themselves good. Their aim is one, though their services and methods are widely variant. If this Nation is to be truly self-governing, the individuals who constitute this Nation must be endowed with capacity to govern themselves. This capacity can come only as they recognize the supreme authority of the moral law interpreted by the conscience, and yield to it a loyal and willing obedience. In different methods, adapted to men of different beliefs, traditions, and temperaments, all these religious and ethical organizations are working to endow the members of their various organizations, and through them the members of the entire American community, with reverence for the moral law, loyalty to conscience, and consequent spirit of self-control. The danger to this country is not from too much subservience to authority, but from too little regard for it; its peril is anarchy, not despotism. The methods which the Roman Catholic Church are using are not those which we should choose; but he is singularly indifferent to the facts of life who fails to see that the Roman Catholic Church through its varied ministries is exercising an influence for temperance, thrift, self-sacrificing service, and devout reverence—foundation virtues on which the perpetuity of the Republic depends—and is exercising this influence upon a large proportion of the population who are reached by moral and inspirational teachings very slightly, if at all, from any other quarter.

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THE CATHOLIC FEDERATION CONVENTION

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE OF THE OUTLOOK

AN INTRODUCTORY NOTE

We regard the annual meeting in New York of the National Federation of Catholic Societies as one of the important events of the time in the field of American religious life. For that reason we have asked Father Burke, one of the clergy of the Paulist Fathers of this city, to act as our special correspondent, and give the following interpretation to our readers. The main purpose of the annual meeting of the Federation, as we understand it, is inspirational. The present Convention has, in a striking fashion, laid special emphasis on the moral duties of citizenship. It has avoided partisan political expressions, and some of its leaders have taken pains to point out that there is nothing in the spirit or doctrine of the Catholic Church in the United States which makes absolute loyalty to Catholic religious belief and absolute loyalty to the Republic of the United States in the slightest degree incompatible.

The two subjects considered by the Convention which might quite naturally have led to partisan expressions, namely, Mexico and the European war, were treated, we think, with conservative wisdom; in the Mexican resolution, declaring that it was "anxious to place before our fellow-citizens the truth regarding the Catholic Church and all the aims and purposes of its members," the Federation stated that, in spite of the outrages against Catholics in Mexico, no prelates, ecclesiastics, or official bodies of the Catholic Church in this country have taken part in revolutionary movements or agitated for intervention. The general resolution concludes: "What the Catholics of the United States ask in connection with Mexico is that, whatever form of government be established in Mexico, with the aid and friendship of our own country, it shall grant and guarantee liberty of conscience and freedom of worship as they exist in our United States and which are denied in Mexico by unjust laws." This is sound doctrine, to which every honest American can subscribe.

In regard to the European war, the Federation in its general meeting expressed the belief that the Pope "is the logical arbiter to whom the warring peoples can turn for a disinterested and impartial settlement of their difficulties in accordance with the sacred principles of justice and humanity."

Coincident with the meeting of the Catholic Federation three other Catholic bodies met in National convention: the German Catholic Central Verein, the Young Men's Catholic Union, and the Catholic Press Association of America. These three associations are members of the general Federation, but they have the right to their own independent activity. Thus the German Catholic Verein, while protesting loyalty to the United States, expressed its sympathy with Germany in the European war, and the Young Men's Catholic Union expressed its belief in the necessity of National preparedness. In this connection it is significant that Cardinal Gibbons has just publicly restated his personal conviction that universal military training is desirable for the youth of the United States because it teaches obedience, and obedience teaches self-reliance.

The whole tone of the Convention may be said to have been in support of higher standards of morality in private life, in family life, in civic service, in patriotism, in the newspapers, and in international relations. In these directions, as we say on another page, we believe that Catholics and Protestants ought to work more and more together. The only field of civic life in which there is a radical difference of attitude is that of education. The Catholic believes that education is a function of the Church, the American Protestant believes that it is a function of the State. How these fundamental conflicting theories are to be harmonized in this country constitutes, in our judgment, the only serious obstacle—and it must be admitted that it is a very serious obstacle—in the way of hearty co-operation in civic and social work between Catholics and Protestants.—THE EDITORS.

THE Catholic Federation was born of a meeting held in Boston, Massachusetts, fifteen years ago, and attended by forty laymen, none of whom were then prominent in public life. Little did they dream to what proportions the work which they then inaugurated would grow. Shortly afterwards the first general Convention was held at Cincinnati. Among its first zealous promoters, and one to whom the success of

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the Federation is in great measure due, is Bishop James A. McFaul, of Trenton, New Jersey. The purpose of the Federation may be defined simply as an endeavor to unite all the lay Catholic societies of America for common united action and for the greater power that comes from such union. The Federation, we may say, in answer to an inquiry, is not an ecclesiastical institution. It is a manifestation through the democratic life of the Church, of hierarchy, priests, and people, of its vigor and its adaptation to present needs and problems. As Cardinal Farley lately said, "The Catholic Federation seeks to bind all Catholic organizations in ties of acquaintanceship and co-operation based on the simple principle that in union there is strength." To each and every particular organization Federation leaves its own organic freedom for action in its particular field; but, leaving each society in a measure autonomous, it seeks to unite, to co-ordinate, the particular activity and influence of each society to the securing of those aims common to the aim of Federation itself.

The Catholic Federation of America meets every year in National Convention. This year that Convention was held in New York City, and was remarkable not only for the large general attendance, for the number of cities represented, but also for the presence of four great dignitaries of the Catholic Church in America: Cardinal Farley, of New York; Cardinal Gibbons, of Baltimore; Cardinal O'Connell, of Boston; and Archbishop John Bonzano, Apostolic Delegate to the United States. The subjects discussed at the Federation Convention which reveal its purpose were, of course, first, those matters of National interest to Catholics as such, and pertaining directly to the welfare of the Catholic body and the promotion of Catholic interests; but even these questions must be of interest to all our non-Catholic fellow-citizens, for they touch intimately the social well-being of the Nation itself. What must have been a matter of surprise to many non-Catholics, accustomed to think that the Catholic Church governs its children by secret methods and keeps from the public its real aims and purposes, was to see the highest dignitaries of the American Church presiding at a meeting in Madison Square Garden to which the entire public was freely admitted, and discussing in the frankest manner, not only the work of the Catholic Church in America, but the close and happy relations that should exist between ourselves and our separated brethren.

Of course it need not be reiterated here that the Catholic Federation has no political aim. Its constitution explicitly excludes all political activity of any and every character. "We are not devoted to any political purpose," says Bishop McFaul, "for there are men of all parties in the organization. It is manifestly absurd that such an organization should seek to control through partisan activities. Catholics, as do all other citizens, safeguard their interests and record their convictions at the ballot-box. There is nothing which Federation may ask which is not in accordance with the principles on which this republic is founded." The Catholic matters which Federation discusses and seeks to promote are matters of Catholic principle, such as the Catholic education of our children, the dignity of the Christian family, the inalienable personal rights of the individual in his freedom of worship and of conscience.

And, as nothing human is alien to its thought and sympathy, Federation reaches out in its discussion and aims, through its executive bodies and committees, through the personal example and influence of every one of its members, to secure the right, healthy solution of those great moral problems that affect the very structure of our country. The different Catholic societies that in all parts of the country are doing yeomen's work—for the public interest, for the safeguarding of public morals, for the social betterment of all classes of people—it is the purpose of the Federation to co-ordinate all these upon a platform of social reform Nation-wide in scope, so that the energies of all, united in one body, may be employed more effectually to promote this cause of social reform common to all our citizens. The very constitution of the Federation declares that it aims at the creation of sound public opinion on all important subjects of the day, stands for the Christian life of the Nation, the proper observance of Sunday, for the Christian education of youth, the sanctity of Christian marriage, the safeguarding of the Christian home. It asserts the necessity of Christian principles in social and public life, in the State, in business, in all financial and industrial relations.

The unique advantage which must accrue to the individual Catholic and to the Catholic body as a whole by the meeting of its leaders from all parts of the country, of its experts

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in every line of social activity and sociology in general, the free debates and discussions on these Nation-wide questions, the meeting of men and women of every nationality working in a common cause—such advantages, we say, must be apparent even to hostile critics of the Federation. The hostility, if any such exists, is due, we feel, to misunderstanding and misrepresentation.

To-day religious and social public activity of every sort is a matter of organization, of study, of mutual co-operation, of a wisdom that sees not only a part, but the whole. The Catholic Federation is American—"The American Federation of Catholic Societies." We do not expect, of course, that those who *differ with us in doctrine will agree with us* in doctrine, but we do say that the American Federation in its social activity stands on a platform thoroughly American and sufficiently broad to include men of all faiths and all beliefs. "The inspiration which its session brings," says Bishop McFaul, "is carried by our laity to every part of the Nation, and enables them to impress upon all with whom they are in touch that the Church has a message for the community at large—to those who are both within and without its fold; that it would aid in every plan to advance pure government and good morals. The Federation naturally cannot enter into relations with other organizations in which any question of doctrine would be involved. It does stand with them, however, on a broad platform of American citizenship." And I could not conclude with better words than those used by the same Bishop of Trenton:

To citizens of every creed who would maintain the ideals of this Republic the American Federation of Catholic Societies extends the right hand of fellowship. Its members represent the efforts of our laity to keep sound the pillars of the Nation. It is devoted to a high service in which Catholic and non-Catholic may co-operate. It comes to the city of New York with the desire that its deliberations may aid the State and be of benefit to all mankind. The Federation represents no propaganda. It demands for the See of Rome no special privileges. It is not at variance with any tradition of free government.

I have been connected with this movement from its inception, and if I thought it contained a single principle which would cause friction with our neighbors, I would cheerfully throw its constitution and by-laws into the depths of the sea.

JOHN J. BURKE, C.S.P.,
Editor "The Catholic World."

New York, August 23, 1916.

THE EPISCOPAL CHURCH AND SOCIAL PROBLEMS

A FORECAST OF THE GENERAL CONVENTION

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE OF THE OUTLOOK

THE forty-fourth General Convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church will meet at St. Louis, Missouri, on Wednesday, October 11. This is the first time in its long history that the Convention has gone west of the Mississippi, and the choice of St. Louis is dictated partly by the rapid development of the Episcopal Church in the Southwest, and partly by the fact that this is the fiftieth year of the election to the episcopate of Daniel Sylvester Tuttle, Bishop of Missouri since 1886, and Presiding Bishop since 1903. The Convention consists of two bodies—the House of Bishops, which now numbers one hundred and twenty-two; and the House of Deputies, consisting of six hundred members, equally divided between the clerical and lay order. Each organized diocese elects four clerical and four lay deputies, and the missionary districts each choose one clergyman and one layman, as do also the foreign districts. The Convention is a thoroughly democratic body, for, indirectly, the bishops and deputies are elected by the rank and file of attendants on Episcopal services. Every State in the Union is represented, likewise the Philippines, Cuba, Porto Rico, Honolulu, China, Japan, and Liberia.

There is every indication that this will be one of the most important Conventions in the history of the Episcopal Church. Momentous questions will come up for settlement. On some matters of doctrine, discipline, and

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worship there have manifested themselves sharp and apparently irreconcilable differences of opinion. Party lines are drawn more clearly than has been the case for years, and the issues will be fought out on the floor of the Convention. The decisions will profoundly affect the relation of Episcopalians to their fellow-Christians, and they are therefore of interest to the whole Christian world.

Considerable attention will be paid to the proposed revision and enrichment of the Prayer-Book. This important subject has occupied the attention of a commission of liturgical experts for the past three years, and some radical revisions will be recommended. Among them is a proposal to revise the Ten Commandments by the elimination of the reasons for their observance. The adoption of this suggestion will relieve many devout worshipers. A strong effort will be made to secure more liberty and flexibility in the use of the Prayer-Book in public services. At present the clergy are bound hand and foot by rubrics which were drafted for conditions which no longer exist. The appointed lessons are too long and often unsuitable. The imprecatory Psalms hurt the sensibilities of a congregation. With every desire to be loyal, a clergyman is hampered at every turn. The Broad Churchmen depart from rubrical direction in the interests of liberty; the High Churchmen do the same in order to introduce prayers and ritual drawn from Roman sources; and the result is liturgical anarchy. Every man is a law unto himself. By bringing the rubrics into harmony with changed conditions it is hoped to eliminate rampant and disturbing individualism. In the matter of appointed prayers and thanksgivings the Prayer-Book stands greatly in need of enrichment. There are no petitions bearing upon the relations of capital and labor; none for schools and colleges; none for such a war as is now raging. These are only illustrations. In 1892 the late Rev. Dr. Huntington made a strong effort for enrichment, but with only partial success. It is probable that this Convention will see the fruit of his labors.

For the past twenty-five years the Episcopal Church has been wrestling with the complicated question of marriage and divorce. The High Churchman ranks marriage as a sacrament, and is unalterably opposed to any dissolution of the relationship for any cause whatsoever. Not a few of the Broad Churchmen—notably Bishop Greer—agree with the conclusion, but on totally different grounds. They are profoundly impressed by the alarming growth of divorce and its consequent social peril. They believe the institution of marriage to be in grave peril. Frankly recognizing the hardship which the abolition of divorce would cause in individual cases, they yet believe it to be necessary if the fabric of the family is to remain unimpaired. As the canon law now stands, a clergyman is forbidden to marry a divorced person who has a husband or wife living. The only exception to this stringent rule is in the case of the innocent party to a divorce. This exception is carefully guarded against abuse. Such a marriage cannot be solemnized until twelve months have elapsed. The decree of the Court and the records must be submitted to the bishop whose consent to the service is necessary. Now an effort is to be made to go further. A Commission of the General Convention has been sitting for the past three years, and it now recommends the passage of a canon which would repeal the above exception and entirely preclude the church marriage of any divorced person. The Commission has been led to this conclusion by its conviction that collusion is widely prevalent, and also by the difficulty of determining the guilt or innocence of parties to a divorce.

It is not at all likely that any serious effort will be made this year to change the name of the Church by the elimination of the word Protestant. Neither will the Panama Conference figure much in debate. Many High Churchmen now feel that the agitation against the Conference was a tactical blunder. Nevertheless questions arising out of that controversy will figure largely in the Convention. During the last fifty years the three parties in the Church have dwelt more or less at peace in the one fold, but their relations now are greatly strained. The action of the diocese of New York in defeating the rector of Trinity parish as a delegate to the General Convention is deeply resented by the "Catholic" party, and some manifestation of that feeling is inevitable. It will take the form of a serious protest against the association of the Episcopal Church in conference with other Christian churches. To men who think with Dr. Manning the vital question is that of ministerial orders. They believe that such conferences involve a recognition of other orders of ministry, and that such recognition concedes their validity. They are apparently more anxious for union

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with Rome and Constantinople than with the Presbyterians and Methodists. To effect that union they are willing to deny the Protestant character of the Church and to apologize for the Reformation.

These men will be much in evidence at the Convention. They are deeply in earnest; they have able leaders on the floor, and are nothing if not aggressive. But they are in a hopeless minority. For more than forty years they have agitated for the change of name, and are further from their goal than ever. However much they may have influenced the clergy, they cannot convert the laity. The Protestantism of the Episcopal Church lay more or less dormant until it was assailed by the "Catholic" party. Then it became what it is to-day, a potent force. It is safe to predict that the forthcoming General Convention will not commit itself to any policy which will widen the gap between the Episcopal and other Protestant churches.

E. CLOWES CHORLEY.
The Rectory, Garrison, New York.

THE MEXICAN COMMISSION

THE appointment by President Wilson of a Commission of three Americans to consult with three Mexicans previously appointed by First Chief Carranza may prove to be more important than any previous act in President Wilson's handling of the Mexican situation.

The suggestion of this Commission came from Carranza in his note delivered at Washington on July 4. This note, soothing in tone, in contrast to the arrogant note of May 31, was written after the mobilization of the American militia on the border and after the bloody combat between the American regulars and Carranza soldiers at Carrizal. In this note Carranza said that he had already "accepted in principle" the mediation offers "of several Latin-American countries," and that "therefore, the Mexican Government only awaits information that the Government of the United States would be disposed to accept this mediation, . . . or whether it is still of the belief that the same results may be attained by means of direct negotiation by both Governments."

Secretary Lansing replied: "The Government of the United States is prepared immediately to exchange views as to a practical plan to remove finally and prevent a recurrence of the difficulties which have been the source of the controversy." It was believed at first that the mediation would be accomplished by means of informal conferences between the acting Mexican Ambassador, Señor Arredondo, and the American Secretary of State; but subsequently the American Government indicated a preference for a conference by a commission composed equally of Americans and Mexicans. Carranza's suggestion that the Commission be composed of six members was accepted by our Government. Carranza quickly appointed as his three delegates Señores Luis Cabrera, Alberto Pani, and Ignacio Bonillas, but there was a delay of several weeks in completing the American part of the Commission.

The Hon. Franklin K. Lane, Secretary of the Interior, accepted his appointment as the first American delegate soon after the names of Carranza's representatives were made public; but Mr. Justice Louis D. Brandeis declined appointment as the second delegate, and it was rumored that a third man, unmentioned by name, had also declined to serve on the Commission. Thus the affair remained in the diplomatic doldrums until President Wilson's appointment last week of his two remaining representatives, Judge George Gray and Dr. John R. Mott.

The scope of the Commission's powers is undetermined as this is written. For a time Carranza seemed inclined to make the withdrawal of American forces in Mexico a condition precedent to any meeting of this Commission, but his attitude has changed, and as we go to press it is reported that the question of removing the American expedition from Mexico will be the first question for discussion by the delegates. As General Funston has already recommended the withdrawal of General Pershing's expedition, there is good reason to believe that there will be no deadlock on this issue. Another probable subject for deliberation is the formation of a co-operative system of patrolling the American-Mexican border. But the great importance of this scheme of Commission conference lies in the large possibility that matters

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fundamental in the reconstruction and regeneration of Mexico will be considered by the delegates to the conference.

The personnel of both the American and the Mexican delegation could hardly be better. Both General Carranza and President Wilson have chosen their representatives with excellent judgment.

The Mexican delegation is headed by Señor Luis Cabrera. Like his two colleagues, Señor Cabrera received part of his education in the United States, and he spent the rest of his student days in Spain, France, and Mexico. He is probably the foremost native civilian in Mexico to-day, and after General Alvaro Obregon and General Carranza is the most influential citizen of his country. He is a lawyer of high reputation in Mexico, an authority on international law, and a well-trained diplomat. For some time he was a confidential agent of Carranza in Washington, but since the recognition of the First Chief by the United States Señor Cabrera has been Carranza's Minister of Finance.

Señor Alberto Pani received the training of an engineer and railway executive, but he has the usual broad ability of the best type of modern business man. Señor Pani was the General Director of Mexican Railways under Carranza until recently, when the *de facto* Government turned over the railways to the foreign corporations that owned them. After Carranza's recognition in the fall of 1915 Señor Pani came to the United States, where he placed large orders of rolling stock for Carranza.

Ignacio Bonillas is Carranza's Secretary of Communications, an office which includes supervision of railways and telegraph lines. He is a graduate of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and, like Señor Pani, has initiative, executive ability, and political experience in addition to his technical qualifications.

The American delegates are as highly qualified for their work as the Mexican representatives. The Hon. Franklin K. Lane, Secretary of the Interior, was born in Prince Edward's Island in 1864, has lived in California and on the Pacific Coast since early childhood, began life as a newspaper reporter and correspondent, and, after studying law, was admitted to the bar in 1889. He was at one time corporation counsel of the city of San Francisco, and was one of the forerunners in the reform movement which has turned that State from one of the worst into one of the best governed of the country. He was Democratic candidate for Governor of California in 1902 and candidate for United States Senator in 1903. He was a member of the Inter-State Commerce Commission for eight years, where he made a record for intellectual power, administrative ability, and good sense. He left the Commission to become President Wilson's Secretary of the Interior. He is universally conceded to be one of the strongest men in the Cabinet.

Judge George Gray is one of the most distinguished jurists in this country. He served as United States Senator from Delaware from 1885 to 1898, and has been a judge of the Federal courts. He was a member of the Commission to settle the terms of peace with Spain in 1898, a member of the Joint High Commission that settled the Alaskan boundary question, a member of the Hague Court, and was chairman of the Commission appointed by President Roosevelt that settled the great coal strike in 1902. Few American public men have had a broader experience in settling international disputes by arbitration or judicial procedure. Judge Gray is seventy-six years old.

Dr. John R. Mott is one of the great figures in the work of the Young Men's Christian Association. He is fifty-one years old, was graduated from Cornell in 1888, received the degree of M.A. from Yale in 1899, the degree of LL.D. from Edinburgh University in 1910, and the same degree from Princeton in 1911. He is now secretary of the International Young Men's Christian Association. In his position as executive head of this great body he has shown administrative and diplomatic qualities of the highest order. A friend writing about him in The Outlook a few years ago said: "He thinks in terms of continents and speaks in units of races. His knowledge of the world is first-hand and intimate, so complete also that he has been elected a member of the Royal Geographical Society of Great Britain. His favorite books are the biographies of great world-conquering warriors—Alexander, Cæsar, Charlemagne, Napoleon, Wellington—whose strategy he absorbs for guidance in his own daring campaigns." His breadth, flexibility, and charity have had wide international recognition.

From the deliberations of such a Commission both Mexico and the United States have a right to hope for important results.

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THE MINING STRIKE IN MINNESOTA

I—FROM THE MINERS' POINT OF VIEW

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE OF THE OUTLOOK

We present below two views of the serious strike which has been going on for some time among the miners of Minnesota. It is well that the country at large should be informed as to the claims and counter-claims of the opposing elements in this industrial war. Violence has already marked the strike, and the tension of the situation is comparable on a smaller scale to that of the earlier stages of the great Colorado mining war. As one of our correspondents points out, practically nothing has been known about it in the Eastern part of the country. The first of our articles is by a correspondent who has deep sympathy with the cause of labor, and in the main it may be taken as representing the miners' side of the controversy. The second is from the writer who presented in The Outlook of November 24, 1915, under the title "The Steel Corporation—Employer," a sympathetic and extremely interesting account of the welfare work among the employees carried on by the Steel Corporation in the very locality where the present controversy is raging. His statement represents in the main the position of the employers as to the facts and issues involved as our correspondent understands that position.—THE EDITORS.

ONE of the most sinister aspects of life in this country is the failure of the serious and thinking people to obtain prompt information about the various industrial struggles and to get at the causes which are at the root of our industrial unrest.

Since June 3 a strike has been waged on the Mesaba Range, Minnesota, whose largest single owner is the Oliver Iron Mining Company, an arm of the Steel Trust. This strike has affected the life, not only of the twelve thousand miners employed on the Range, but of ten towns and villages from Aurora to Hibbing, a distance of sixty miles. The strike has been characterized by the prompt deputizing of a large force of gunmen, numbering, according to Sheriff J. R. Meining, of Duluth, over a thousand; more, according to residents of the Range towns.

And although this strike has aroused the bitterest feeling on both sides, although it has affected directly and indirectly thousands of people, although there have been three people killed, several wounded, and over two hundred arrested and six held for murder (Carlo Tresca and seven other organizers were held on the charge of being accessory before the act), there has appeared in the public press only a brief paragraph or two—nothing that would give any picture of the magnitude of this struggle. According to George P. West, of the Committee on Industrial Relations, "the city of Duluth, the county of St. Louis, and the State of Minnesota as represented by Governor Burnquist and other public officials have joined hands in a relentless effort to crush the strike of the iron-workers." He goes on to say: "With the support and good will of the United States Steel Corporation and affiliated interests in the State, Governor Burnquist, Sheriff John R. Meining, of Duluth, County Prosecutor Greene, and the Duluth Chief of Police are playing at ducks and drakes with the most sacred rights of the foreign workmen who mine the ore that goes down to the ships at Duluth for shipment to the Pittsburgh Mills." That this fierce and important struggle should have gone on so long without arousing comment is the direct fault of no one. It is not due to any consciously willful suppression of the news. It is due rather to the lack of communication between the workers and that thinking part of the community which forms the public opinion which asks that labor shall receive its fair hearing in the courts and in the press.

On the 2d of June, 1916, a small mine, the St. James, in Aurora, a town of seven thousand inhabitants, situated at the extreme east of the Range, struck. At that time and until several days later there were no organizers of any kind on the Range.

The strike apparently had its origin in the losing of a beautiful hope. The miners on the Mesaba Range are paid in two different ways: the open-pit men by the day; some of the underground men who are not miners are also paid by the day, a system of payment known as "company count;" the underground miners are paid on a system of piece-work known as the contract system. On February 1 the wages of the open-pit miners were raised; on May 1 there was another raise which brought the price of this class of labor up to $2.60.

The company alleges that the wages of those working under the contract system were

(*Continued on page following illustrations*)

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Current Events Pictorially Treated

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CAPTAIN FRYATT, A MARTYR TO "FRIGHTFULNESS" IN NAVAL WARFARE

Captain Fryatt was executed by order of a German court martial for defending his ship, the steamer Brussels, against a German submarine. The portrait was taken at Rotterdam recently

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PHOTOGRAPH BY HARRIS & EWING

RAILWAY MANAGERS WHO CONFERRED WITH PRESIDENT WILSON ABOUT THE THREATENED STRIKE

From left to right, beginning with middle row: J. G. Walber, Secretary of the Eastern Conference of Managers, W. L. Seddon, Vice-President Seaboard Air Line (bottom row); H. W. McMaster, General Manager Wheeling and Lake Erie (top row); P. E. Crowley, Asst. V.-P. New York Central (middle row), S. E. Cotter, Genl. Mgr. Wabash, N. D. Maher, V.-P. Norfolk and Western; P. S. Albright, Genl. Mgr. Atlantic Coast Line (middle row); L. W. Baldwin, Genl. Mgr. Central of Georgia (top row), Elisha Lee, Asst. Genl. Mgr. Pennsylvania (bottom row); A. M. Schoyer, Resident V.-P. Pennsylvania Lines west of Pittsburgh (face partly hidden by hat), E. W. Grice, Asst. to President, Chesapeake and Ohio; A. S. Greig, Asst. to Receiver, St. Louis and San Francisco (top row, against column); C. L. Bardo, Genl. Mgr. N. Y., N. H. & H. (in light suit, with cigar in hand); A. J. Stone, V.-P. Erie; E. H. Coapman, V.-P. Southern Ry. (face to left); James Russell, Genl. Mgr. Denver and Rio Grande; C. H. Ewing, Genl. Mgr. Phila. and Reading; G. H. Emerson, Genl. Mgr. Great Northern; G. S. Waid, V.-P. & Genl. Mgr. Sunset Central Lines; C. W. Kouns, Genl. Mgr. Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fé

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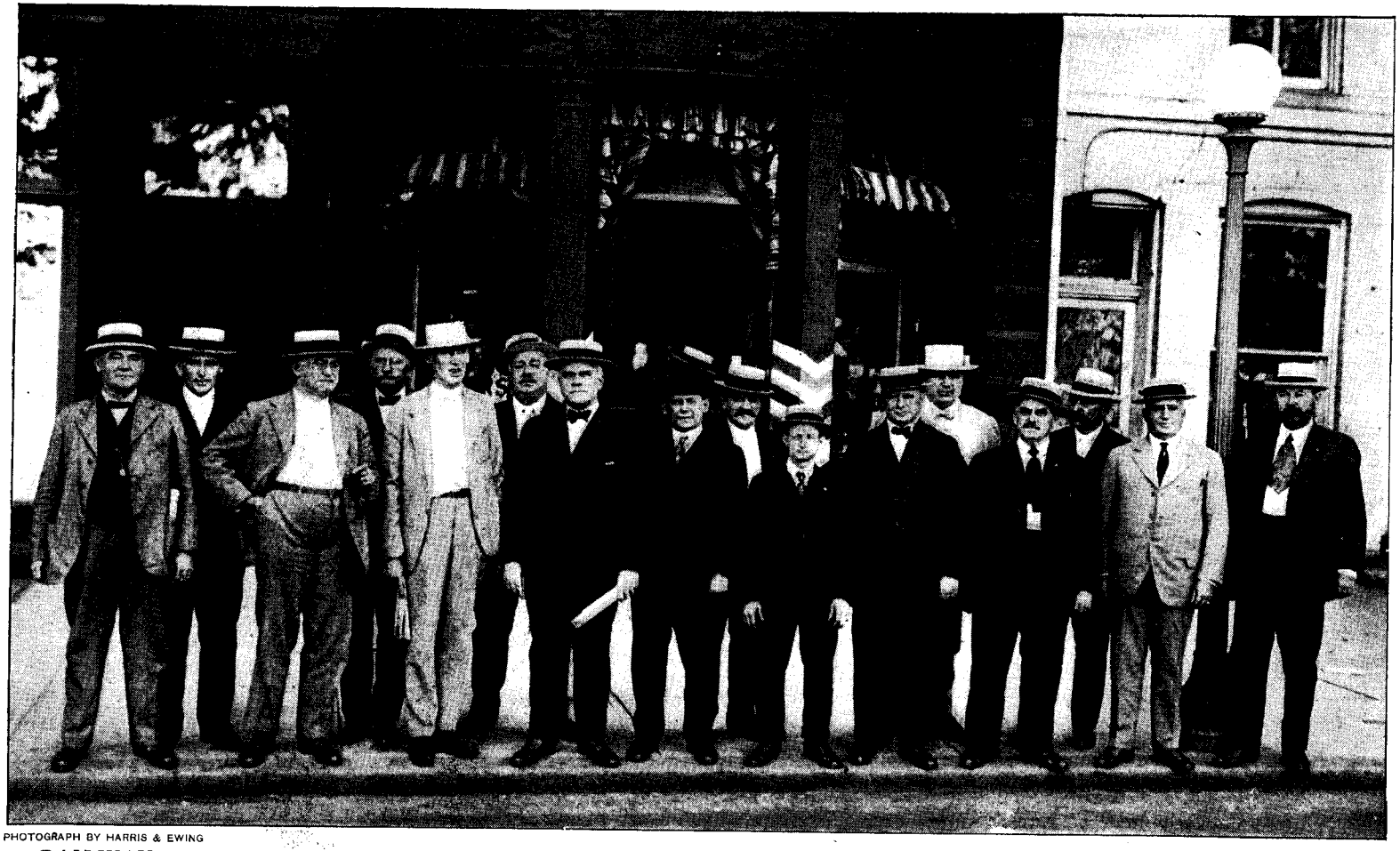

PHOTOGRAPH BY HARRIS & EWING

RAILWAY EMPLOYEES WHO CONFERRED WITH PRESIDENT WILSON ABOUT THE THREATENED STRIKE

The Brotherhood leaders included in the photograph are, from left to right: C. M. Rodgers; Mr. Lewis; W. G. Lee, President of the Brotherhood of Railway Trainmen; S. Veach; A. B. Garretson, President of the Order of Railway Conductors; W. J. Burke; W. S. Stone, Grand Chief of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers; W. S. Carter, President of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen; William Parks; Mr. Rickert; Henry Huddleston; W. O. Van Pelt; O. P. Kelly; F. D. Howard; Peter Kilduff; F. S. Evans

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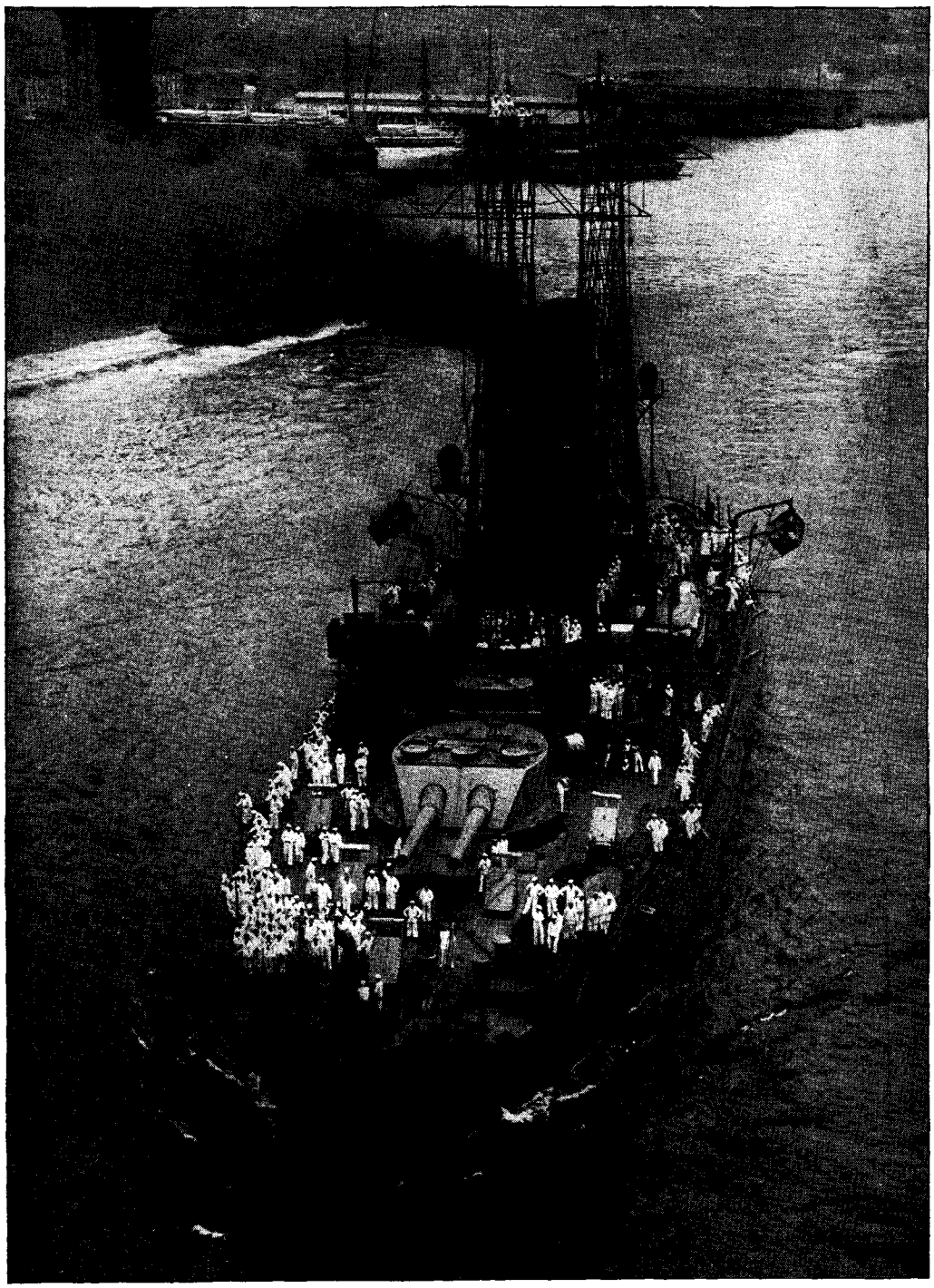

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A SHIPLOAD OF "ROOKIES" WHO ARE TO RECEIVE NAVAL TRAINING

The picture shows the Maine on her way from the Brooklyn Navy-Yard for a cruise, carrying with her a large number of young men who are to learn on the sea something akin to what the Plattsburg "rookies" have learned as to military duties on land

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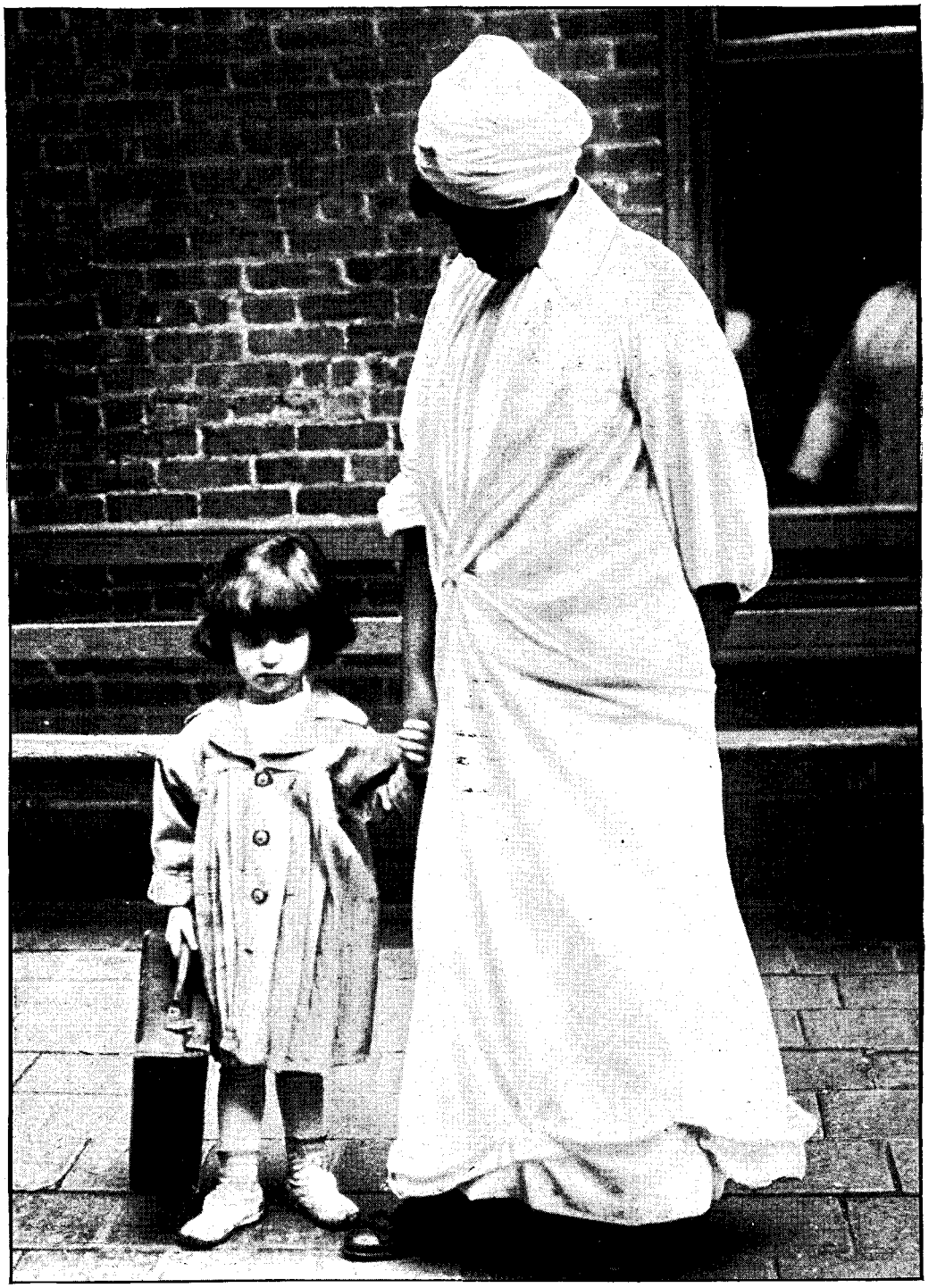

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A HAPPY OUTCOME OF AN INFANT PARALYSIS CASE

A child who has been ill of the dreaded disease in a New York hospital, and who has happily recovered, is here shown on her way with the nurse to her home. The terror that this epidemic has inspired should not blind us to the fact that in the majority of cases the outcome has been similar to the above—namely, recovery

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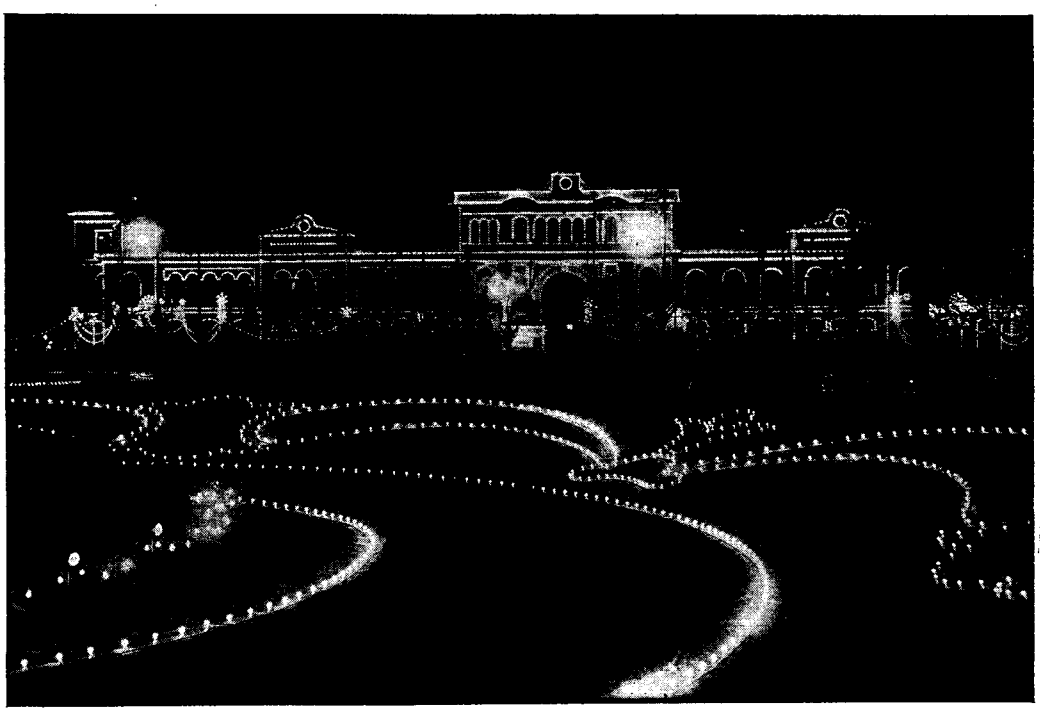

PHOTOGRAPHS FROM AMERICAN PRESS ASSOCIATION

CELEBRATION OF THE CENTENARY OF THE ADOPTION OF THE ARGENTINE CONSTITUTION

The pictures show the Capitol (above) and the Government House and Sunken Gardens in Buenos Aires illuminated, July 9, in honor of this historic event. The splendid public buildings of Argentina's capital are strikingly brought out by the myriad electric lights employed in producing this brilliant spectacle. See The Outlook of July 26 for editorial comment on the Argentine centenary

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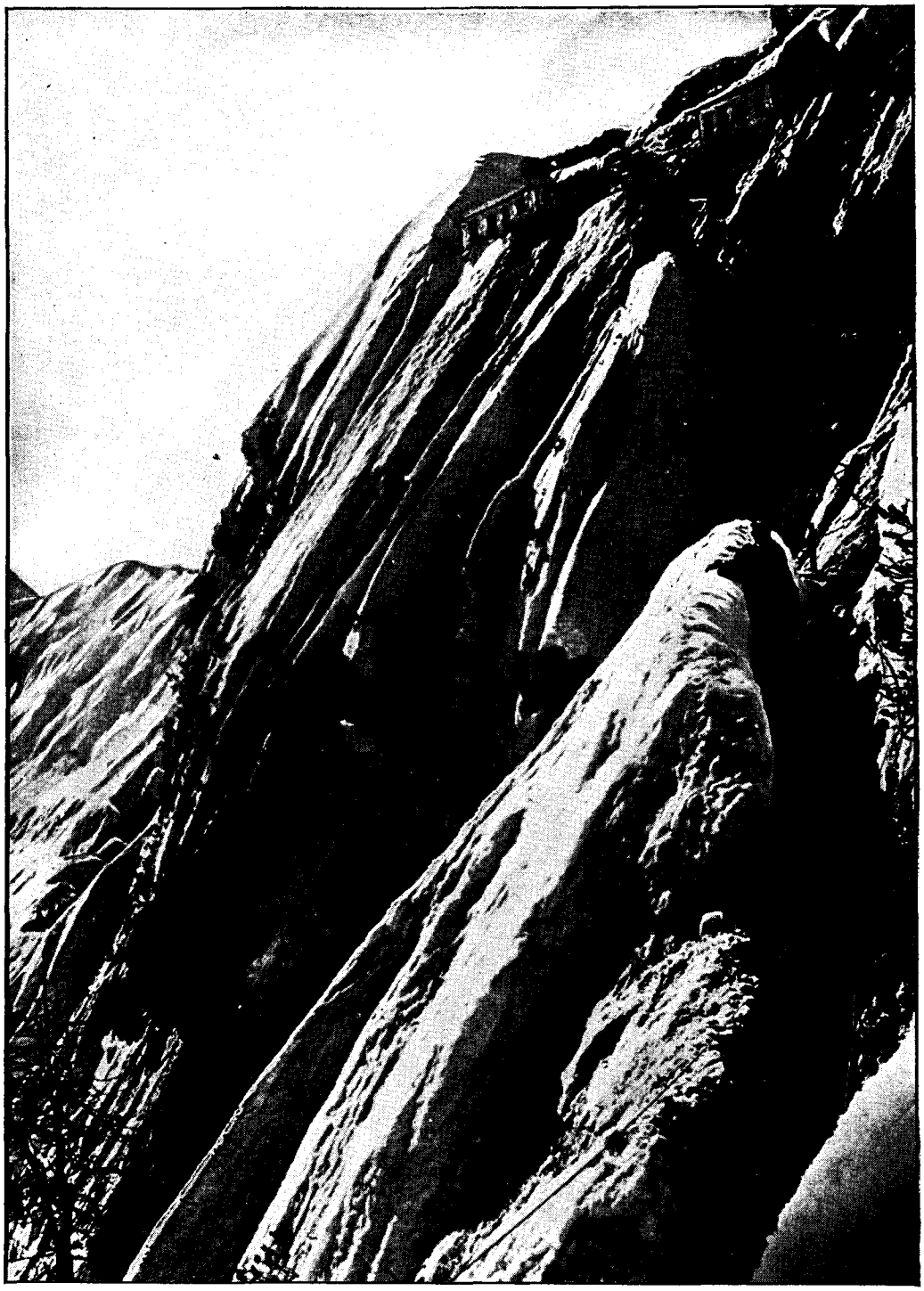

PHOTOGRAPH FROM PRESS ILLUSTRATING SERVICE

SHELTERS CUT IN THE DOLOMITE ALPS AT THE HEIGHT OF SIX THOUSAND FEET

The photograph, which is an official one, secured through the Austrian Embassy, effectively exhibits the tremendous work which has been done in trying to fortify the Teuton countries against the attack of enemies

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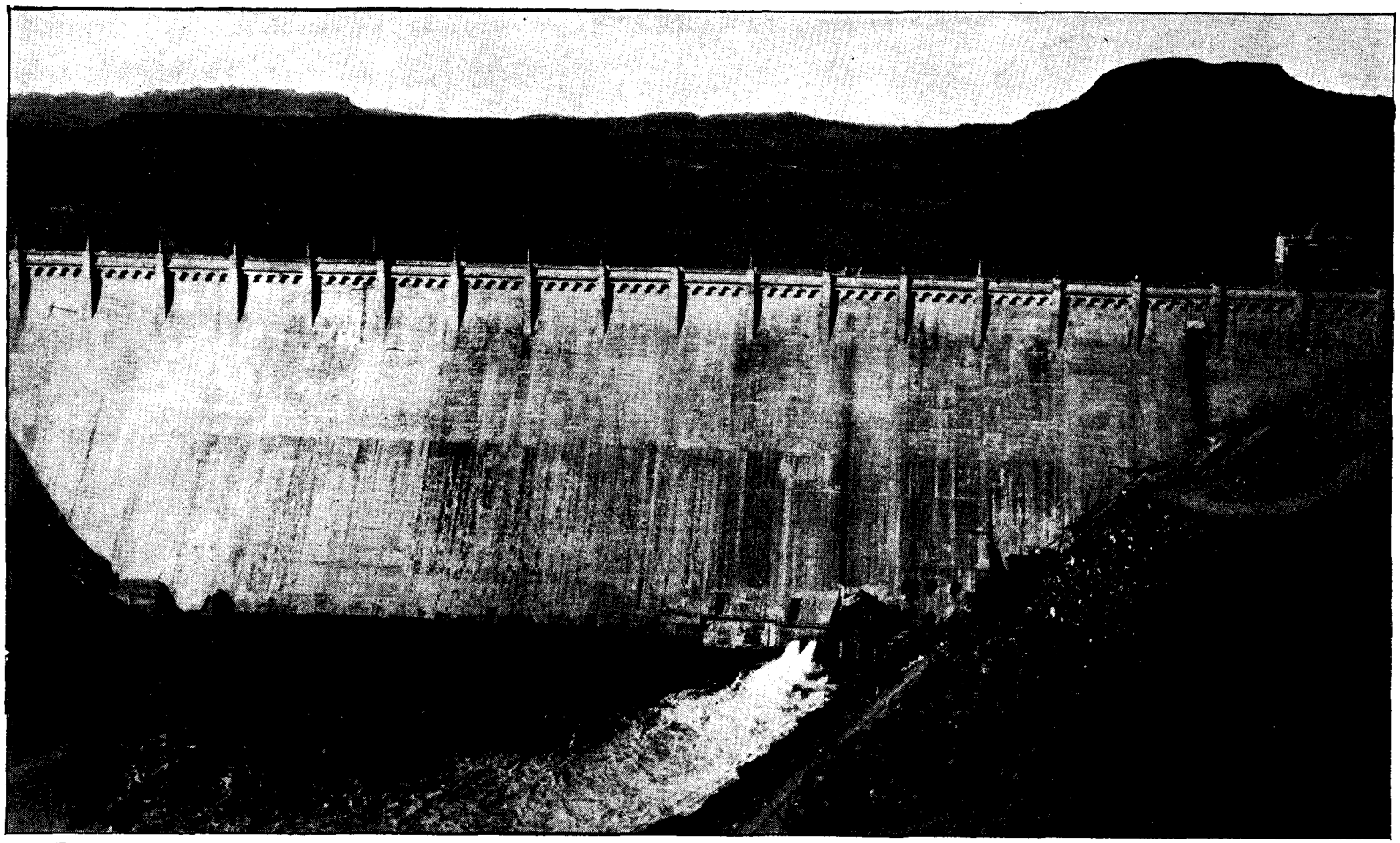

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A GREAT IRRIGATION WORK COMPLETED IN NEW MEXICO

The picture shows the great dam at Elephant Butte, New Mexico, which has just been finished and is soon to be put to practical use. It is 318 feet high and 1,674 feet long and will store, it is estimated, 115 billion cubic feet of water and irrigate 185,000 acres of land. It was built by the United States Reclamation Service at a cost of about $5,000,000. See editorial pages

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raised proportionately. Apparently the miners remained in ignorance of this raise, or it was in some way rendered inoperative, for they struck. In all the conversations that various investigators, including the Federal mediators, have had with the miners no miner seems to have known that his wages were raised. They proved how little they knew about it and how deeply they resented a series of injustices great and small which the contract system made possible by a spontaneous strike, which leaped down the Range as the forest fires which have devastated the great trees around the mines.

The demands made by the workers are as follows: $2.75 a day for open-pit mining; $3 a day for underground mining, dry work; $3.50 a day for underground mining, wet work; an eight-hour day; pay twice a month; abolition of the contract system.

The company asserts that only twenty-eight per cent of the underground workers—the real miners—are paid less than $3 a day, and that it would be unfair to the skillful miner to equalize the pay at his expense. The answer of the miners is that the contract system as practiced on the Mesaba Range makes wages so uncertain and leads to so much petty graft and unjust discrimination on the part of the shift bosses and captains that in the working out of the system they do not make $3 a day. So the paradoxical situation exists that, according to company figures, the miners are actually striking for a less wage than the majority receive.

Under the contract system, the miner contracts to mine ore for a certain price a car-load. The price of this car-load may be, and is, varied at any time according to the conditions encountered. It is the mine captain who fixes the price. According to the miners, it has been the custom to sell the best places for prices varying from the virtue of the miners' wives and daughters to presents of drinks and cigars. So universal is this custom that any reference to the graft of the captain is received in any meeting of miners by laughter and applause.

There are at present in the hands of the Federal investigators affidavits sworn to before a notary public concerning all these forms of grafts, from insulting propositions made to the women of miners' families to affidavits that drinks or money were paid for the job.

The miners are supposed to work but eight hours; but, instead of their time being counted from the mouth of the mine until they are again above ground, their working time is reckoned only from the moment picks are in their hands.

A word concerning raffles, which, it is alleged, is a usual form of graft. The mine captains make out sometimes as many as a thousand tickets at fifty cents to a dollar on a non-existent farm or a stove or a horse. These are offered for sale, and not a miner dares refuse.

Again, the miner has, in fact, to pay for powder, fuses, tools, spikes, but this account is never itemized. It does not appear upon his due bill, which states briefly what he is to receive for his month's work. He is paid monthly only, which means that the Mesaba Range is run on a credit system. If a miner is discharged or leaves before pay-day, he must wait until then for his money.

These are the injustices, large and small, as charged by the miners, which have led to the present difficulty. In the coal mines the system employed enables the miner to know day by day what he makes. An itemized account of his powder, fuses, etc., is kept for him. The miner on the Mesaba Range never knows until the end of the month what he will receive. The system makes it possible for the unmarried man who can afford to bribe the captain to get the "soft places."

As soon as the strike occurred every effort was made by the authorities to stop the strike through hired gunmen and through countless arrests. The miners have been extraordinarily patient in the presence of these hired deputies in their towns and villages. The Oliver Company, which holds perhaps a third of the mines, testifies to the orderliness of the strikers, who, however, have been given ninety days on the smallest charges. Deep injustice has been shown by the authorities in their treatment of disorders caused by strikers as compared with those caused by gunmen. During a clash of strikers and gunmen—a clash caused by the gunmen themselves—John Alar, a striker, was shot and killed. No arrests followed his death. On June 28 the home of a man in Biwabik named Masonowietch, who was suspected of running a "blind pig," was entered by Deputy Myron and three assistant deputies. The man was told roughly to come along. His wife started to get his shoes from an inner room, upon which she was clubbed by one of the deputies. The boarders sprang to her assistance. In

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the scuffle that ensued Deputy Myron was killed, also a man outside the house named Lavalde. There were no guns among the strikers, and evidence goes to show that Myron was shot by one of his own assistants. At present Masonowietch and his wife and the three boarders lie in jail charged with murder. The woman has with her a seven-months baby.

At once Carlo Tresca, Joe Schmidt, Scarlett, and other Industrial Workers of the World organizers were arrested, and are held for murder in the first degree as accessory before the act, it having been alleged that incendiary speeches made by them caused the killing of Deputy Myron. The country is familiar with the arresting of labor organizers on similar charges.

No arrests have been made for the murder of the bystander Lavalde. The mayors of the villages and the members of the American Federation of Labor place the blame for all disorders which have occurred on the presence of the gunmen, and on the system which makes it possible for gunmen to be hired by private corporations.

Up to this time the company has refused to have anything to do with the miners. It refuses to recognize that there is a strike or that the miners have grievances.

It has maintained a rigorous course of aloofness since the gunmen were imported.

At present Mediators Davies and Fairley, of the United States Department of Labor, are on the Range investigating the situation. It is to be hoped that their efforts to make the Steel Corporation consider the miners' grievances will be more successful than those of the miners' representatives and those of the mayors and business men of the municipalities, whose efforts at mediation have been met with blank silence.

MARY HEATON VORSE.

Virginia, Minnesota

II—THE OTHER SIDE

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE OF THE OUTLOOK

APPROXIMATELY one year ago I visited the Mesaba Range, in northern Minnesota, and spent several weeks observing the general condition of the iron-mining industry, with special reference to the methods and practices of the United States Steel Corporation in its dealings with its employees and with the various communities where it is so largely interested through its subsidiary organization, the Oliver Iron Mining Company.

Notwithstanding the fact that these methods and practices were not in every case ideal, I found that the Steel Corporation had won the good will of both employees and citizens to a notable degree. I was unable to uncover among the employees any accumulating irritation such as would have a tendency to bring on a strike. However, certain points in the policy of the Corporation, which at that time seemed to me weak, but which were then causing no friction, have now become of greater interest.

The Corporation held to the ten-hour day except for the underground miners, who had been given the eight-hour day two years before. I talked with many officials about the matter. There was nothing new in their defense of the policy. They simply believed that the ten hours is not too much for a day's work.

Although the Oliver Iron Mining Company was paying wages as high as the highest, and higher than many of the independent companies, I questioned whether any of the wage schedules sufficiently took into account the fact that the industry is seasonal, slacking up in the winter, and the further fact that year in and year out iron-mining fluctuates with the changes in general industrial conditions. While common labor was receiving at that time $2.25 a day, it could not absolutely count on three hundred times that amount for a year's work. The officials pointed out, in reply, that the Corporation's wage scales have moved only one way—that is, upward. They have never been reduced in hard times. Furthermore, the Oliver Company makes special effort to provide employment for all its employees with families when that is necessary to carry them over the slack season.

I talked with many men about the once-a-month pay-roll. They did not feel that a more frequent pay-day was necessary. It would simply mean more clerical labor without any compensating advantages to the men.

A more important point was the entire

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absence at the mines of any machinery for collective representation of the employees before the company officials. There were no pit committees or similar agencies through which the miners could express their grievances, large or small, in a regular, orderly way. The company preferred to deal with the men individually, inviting each man when he had a grievance to come to the office and state it. Many of the superintendents and their assistants prided themselves on their alertness to maintain cordial relations with each employee. I found that the superintendents were strongly opposed to even the most modified form of collective representation among the men. I think it seemed to savor to them of labor-unionism, which, to put it bluntly, they feared.

The facts on which I based my conclusion that, notwithstanding these points already mentioned, the Steel Corporation had won the good will of its employees, remained unchanged until the first of last June, save for the fact that there had been two increases of wages in the interim, one on the 1st of February and the other on the 1st of May. The common laborers, for example, who had been receiving $2.25, received as a result of these increases $2.60 per day.

June 2 the employees of the St. James mine, owned by a small independent company, went on a strike. The owners were developing new property, operating with small capital, and paying wages far below the rates then prevailing on the Range. The strikers obviously had a good case, and the strike should have been settled immediately. No settlement took place, however, and soon the strike spread over the entire Range, at length involving the Oliver Iron Mining Company. Figures obtained from the Company show that they had, at the end of May, 9,072 men on their pay-rolls. The number eventually went down to as low as 4,960, and has now increased to 6,075. I am asked by The Outlook to gather the facts which appear to represent the truth as seen by the mining company. My sources are entirely unofficial, but I have exercised every care to base my statements on opinions and facts offered to me in good faith. It is claimed that at no time have any substantial number of men engaged in common labor in the open pits, nor has the skilled labor, either in open pits or underground mines, followed the strikers. The company has closed some of its mines located in isolated or exposed places, where it is difficult adequately to protect either the mines or the miners.

The Steel Corporation has been sufficiently affected by this strike to make pertinent the question: If the miners were contented a year ago and have received two wage increases since then, what made any of them willing to strike now?

The company maintain that the strike, in so far as it affects them, is not a spontaneous strike of the employees, but that it has been stirred up entirely from the outside by Industrial Workers of the World agitators. They assert that no committee of the striking employees has ever presented, formally or informally, the strikers' grievances. They maintain that the strike has been managed exclusively by the Industrial Workers of the World leaders, which the Corporation positively refuses to deal with. It is admitted, on the other hand, that a citizens' committee, in part made up of local politicians, whose attitude toward the mining companies has long been one of extreme hostility, proposed a conference, which all the mining companies declined to accept.

I give herewith, so far as limited space permits, what appears to be the Oliver Company's attitude to the strikers' demands, their request for an eight-hour day and a pay-day every two weeks having been noted above.

The strikers demand $2.75 for all "top-men;" these men now receive $2.60, which includes an increase of fifteen per cent within the present year. The work is common labor, and the present wages compare favorably with those paid for similar work elsewhere.

The main demand of the strikers is for the abolition of the contract system in the underground mines, and the substitution therefor of a flat rate of $3 per day for regular work, and $3.50 for "wet" work. This contract system affects about twenty-three per cent of the employees of the Oliver Company. It is a piece-rate system of so much per unit for the ore mined. The mining companies maintain that because of its elasticity it works for efficiency, since the work varies in the degree of its difficulty with the character of the ground in which the ore is being mined. They also claim that such a system is necessary in underground mines because of the difficulty in supervising the men. They further claim that the rates under the contract system are so fixed that the average miner, not the best one, can earn from $3.25 to

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$3.50 per day. The general average under the contract system is $3.34 a day; some mines average as high as $3.90, and eleven per cent of the contract miners in the Virginia district, for example, made over $4 per day in the month of May. Unless these figures are fabricated, which is a supposition almost absurd, it appears that the granting of the strikers' demands would actually reduce the wages of a considerable portion of the men.

The strikers claim that as a result of the contract system there is favoritism among the bosses, and that bribes are necessary to obtain assignments of easy work. The officials claim that such obvious violation of company rules exists only in isolated cases, if at all, and that they are as much interested as are the miners to stop it wherever it appears. The miners have only to report the matter to the office, and the offender will be summarily dealt with.

The strikers claim that under the contract system the rates are changed arbitrarily, and the accounts juggled so that the miners actually receive less money than the contracts called for. It is asserted, on the contrary, that each miner has the privilege of checking up his account each day, that at least five days before each pay-day a notice of the amount of his earnings for the preceding month is given to him, and that every miner has the privilege of coming to the office and having mistakes corrected.

The principal charge against the Oliver Mining Company is that it has employed "gunmen" to defend its properties, and that these special police have greatly exceeded their legal rights in the discharge of their duties as special deputy sheriffs.

The Oliver properties are scattered over a range eighty miles long and several miles wide. Many of the mines are isolated; others are open pits many miles in circumference. The strikers, led by the Industrial Workers of the World organizers and stirred by incendiary speakers, so it is claimed, immediately began to make threats and to intimidate the men who remained at work. In some cases they used rifles and revolvers. One instance is cited where they threatened to roll rocks down the side of an open pit upon the men below. The officials cite numerous instances where the property of the company and the employees were in urgent need of protection.

The Oliver Company ordinarily employs about seventy-five uniformed police to patrol its property, watch for fires, and suppress the "blind pigs," which the local officials are so loth to attack. This force was not adequate to handle the strike situation. The police of the various villages were also inadequate. In fact, there was no existing body of public police officers at hand, or prepared to deal with the disorder which accompanied the strike. The Oliver Company increased its special police force to four hundred, transferring to it as many of its own employees as could be spared from other duties. A very few additional guards were employed, every one of whom was a resident of the community and well known. These men were deputized by the sheriff of the county and were under his jurisdiction.

As for the statement that these men acted without regard for the lawful rights of the strikers, only a most careful investigation of each individual charge would reveal the truth. Reference is made to the fact that three houses of employees have been blown up, and that threats of violence and methods of intimidation were quite generally employed by the strikers to keep employees of the mining companies from going to their work. John Alar, the first striker to be killed in a clash with the police, fell, it is said, with a rifle in his hands after he had shot at a group of employees who were being escorted by the special police through a mob of strikers to the entrance to the Alpena Mine.

It seems lamentable that at the beginning of the strike there was no adequate public police force at hand to handle the situation. I think the mining officials feel that, in view of the fact that they pay enormous taxes in return for the supposed protection of the State, they were entitled to receive it in time of need, and that they acted entirely within their moral as well as legal rights in thus providing for the protection which the public was not giving them.

An exhaustive investigation of the causes of the strike would doubtless lead back to the tax fight of a year ago in which the local politicians of some of the mining districts made every possible effort to embarrass the mining companies. It is also claimed that the strike, instead of being spontaneous, was worked up with more or less care, as is evidenced by the fact that Industrial Workers of the World speakers and organizers have been present on the Range since last February.

New York City. TYLER DENNETT.

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COMMISSION GOVERNMENT[1]

I—THE NEXT THING IN RAILWAY REGULATION

BY BLEWETT LEE

GENERAL SOLICITOR OF THE ILLINOIS CENTRAL RAILROAD COMPANY

ALL have probably heard the story of the man who had a chameleon for a pet. He would put the little reptile on a piece of yellow cloth and it would turn yellow; on a piece of red cloth and it would turn red; on a piece of green cloth and it would turn green. In an unfortunate moment somebody suggested putting the versatile little creature on a piece of Scotch plaid. The result was that the chameleon burst all to pieces trying to make good. However veracious the incident may be, it is an illustration of what is now going on in the case of the railways of the country. When they had no one to obey but the State legislatures, they managed to do what was expected of them; when the Inter-State Commerce Commission got to work, the railways still managed to get on; but now, when nearly all the States have able-bodied railway commissions, and Congress, the Inter-State Commission, the State legislatures, and all the State commissions are acting at once, the plaid has become entirely too variegated for the railways and they are in a fair way to burst. In fact, a good many of them have burst already.

The thing that ought to come next in railway regulation is regulation by the Nation, instead of regulation by the States; wherever a National uniform rule is possible the Nation should take charge of the matter. Only in those matters which are of a local character, in which the rules and regulations which are desirable should vary from place to place and from time to time, should the States regulate the railways. Indeed, it would be desirable to go even further than this, and to have the railways regulated exclusively by National authority, simply for the reason that a railway has only one purse and two people cannot regulate a railway at the same time any more than they can regulate a clock. If we had National ownership of railways, the Nation alone would regulate them. Many of the benefits of National ownership we can obtain by exclusively National regulation. Our existing system is neither fish, flesh, nor fowl, nor good red herring. What the country needs is that the power to regulate the railways should be concentrated and lodged exclusively with the Inter-State Commerce Commission.

The new Public Utility Law of California has given to the State Commission full authority over all public utilities of the State within or outside of the incorporated municipalities, so that, instead of having their rates fixed by the one or many municipalities in which they operate, the rates will be fixed by a single commission with authority everywhere in the whole State. The time has come when the people of the United States should deal with the matter of rate-making in the same way, and all of the railway rates of the country should be placed under the supervision of a single tribunal at Washington, instead of being left to the discordant and conflicting action of the commissions of the several States. We need the eye that can look across the Rocky Mountains, instead of the eye that cannot see beyond the State line. Cut away the thousand local threads that bind the railways hand and foot and give Gulliver a chance to get on his feet and go to work.

There is one ideal which is being persistently proclaimed to the American people today in the matter of railway administration—the ideal of Government ownership. It is an ideal not in harmony with either our traditions or our powers, and it bears great possibilities of evil. As against this, there is another ideal which offers greater advantages and is entirely practicable—the ideal of exclusively National regulation of railways. This ideal it may not be possible to realize immediately. Every reform has to contend against powerful vested interests, and not the least of these are the offices which have been created and which live by perpetuating the conditions which gave them birth. We can give the office-holders plenty of other regulating to do. The present methods of governing railways are hopelessly bad, and the best way out is to have exclusively National

[1] A second article on Commission Government will follow. It is by Mr. Paul A Sinsheimer, the financial expert of the California Railroad Commission, and is entitled "Public Utility Regulation in California."—THE EDITORS.

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regulation. For this ideal of railway regulation it is claimed that it marks the way to real progress and to better government of railways —very much better government.

The situation where one State, by creating a system of excessive taxation, takes more than its share of the revenues of an inter-State carrier, or where a State forces intra-State rates down to a figure not so low that confiscation can be proved, but not high enough to bear a proper proportion of the aggregate expenses of the carrier, has become a crying evil, and seems at the present time to be beyond the reach of any corrective short of Federal legislation. There is not the slightest doubt to-day that some States are forcing unduly low rates for their own supposed benefit, but at the expense of other States and of the Nation, and that some States are taxing the railways within their borders upon a basis that imposes heavy burdens upon the people of other States. Probably three-fourths of the railway business of the United States consists of inter-State and foreign commerce. The one-fourth consisting of intra-State business is divided up among the various States along the line. Under these circumstances, no single State ought to be allowed in the pursuit of its own policies to prey upon a railway which other States and the Nation are entitled to use. The greedy State ought to be made to limit itself to a fair share. If a railway company is a goose to be plucked, no one State should be allowed to take all the feathers. Predatory operations of one State may prevent a railway system from borrowing money necessary to make improvements in other States, or extending its system, or giving adequate service anywhere. When one State compels the railway companies operating within its borders to put on each of their freight trains one more brakeman than is necessary, the wasted money must be contributed, not only by the citizens of that State, but also by the citizens of the other States in which the railway runs, and by the citizens of the other States still beyond who must use that railway to get their products to market. When direct reductions in rates inflict ill-advised losses upon railway companies, it is sometimes possible to correct the situation by restoring the old rates, but where the impairment of net earnings comes from foolish operating laws or excessive taxes, the task of getting back again to a just and reasonable basis is almost a hopeless one, so far as State action is concerned. The laws of the United States should give Kentucky the right to say to Illinois, "Thou shalt not muzzle the ox that treadeth out my corn."

The reorganizations which are inevitable in the case of many of the railway lines now in the hands of receivers call attention to the fact that the preservation of insolvent railway systems as a whole has become absolutely dependent upon the consent of the railway commissions of the various States through which the systems operate. There is practically no efficient control over the action of the railway commissions of the States. They are exceedingly likely to differ with each other and pull in opposite directions. Unless we have a Federal authority to deal with the situation, we may find ourselves in a situation where there is nothing to be done but to break up the insolvent railways into little bits and slowly build up again new railway systems, surrendering for the time being the economy due to the operation of large units. Reorganization plans used to have to run the gauntlet of the courts, but they have now found in the local railway commissions a very much more formidable obstacle. Since our railway systems have become inter-State, it ought to be possible to have the General Government authorize the conditions under which such systems may survive.

Space will not permit pointing out the extent to which the revenues of the carriers are depleted by foolish statutes as to how the railways shall be operated. One man must serve many masters. For example, a conspicuous instance of the impropriety of State laws in dealing with the present-day railway conditions is the legislation upon the subject of clearances. Since operating divisions do not coincide with State lines, clearance laws in one State practically compel the railways to observe the same laws in other States included in the same operating divisions. When, however, the other States begin to pass other clearance laws, we reach the obvious result that the railway companies may be compelled to revise their structures over and over again by seesawing legislation in adjacent States. In fact, some States are providing for different clearances from others. The whole matter should be placed in the control of Congress, and power over clearances for the whole Nation should be given to the Inter-State Commerce Commission. The laws under which railways are

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operated should be National in their character and uniform in their scope. The rules of safety must not change whenever an imaginary State line is crossed.

What we have to face in the railway world of the United States to-day is a condition, not a theory. The situation is growing worse instead of better, and the time has come for all far-seeing and patriotic people to give consideration to some plan for putting an end to the present confusion and mischief. There are only two ways out of the present unfortunate condition. The first is Government ownership, which is not acceptable on account of the failure of democratic government so far to solve the problem of efficient adminstration anything like so well as private industry. The other way out is regulation by a single National body with adequate power to deal with all phases of railway administration. A suitable administrative body we already have in the Inter-State Commerce Commission; what it lacks is sufficient and exclusive power to deal with the whole matter. It cannot be too strongly emphasized that the railway question is a National question. The moment that a new railway is connected with an existing system, every station upon its line is connected potentially with the whole world; the smallest movement of traffic upon it may send a thrill that will extend for thousands of miles, for the industrial fabric of the business world is as sensitive as a spider's web. The time was when railways were State institutions, but now they have outgrown the nest; the birds have forever flown.

State railway commissions have been in existence in this country for a long time. There was one in Rhode Island in 1836, in New Hampshire as early as 1844, in Connecticut in 1853, in New York in 1855, in Massachusetts in 1869, in Illinois in 1871. Few States are left now—only Delaware, Utah, and Wyoming—in which there are not powerful administrative bodies that regulate railways. The Inter-State Commerce Act was passed in 1887; but it was not given power to fix minimum rates until 1906, and power to suspend increases of rates came only in 1910. In this comparatively short period it is already clear enough to any impartial observer that the Inter-State Commerce Commission has, on the whole, shown itself adequate to deal with the situation, while in almost every State which has tried the experiment the State Commission has shown that the job is entirely too big for it to tackle. As between State regulation and Federal regulation, can there be any question which horse is going to win?

The most important feature about Federal authority over foreign and inter-State commerce is that, once exercised, it is exclusive. It is paramount to that of the States and does away with all conflicting regulations on the part of the States covering the same matters. The present situation, however, is one where the State commissions and the State legislatures are reducing rates with a free hand and compelling foreign and inter-State business to foot the bills for the deficits created by State regulation. As things now stand, the State commissions have the whip hand and the Inter-State Commerce Commission is more or less at their mercy.

The consideration should not be overlooked that the whole public is interested in the success of the railways, since transportation is a vital necessity of business, so that the policy which denies to railway companies reasonable earnings and a fair return upon their investment inflicts an injury not only upon the railways but upon every other business as well.

In the report by the Railroad Securities Commission, which was sent to Congress by the President, December 8, 1911, it was said:

> A reasonable return is one which, under honest accounting and responsible management, will attract the amount of investors' money needed for the development of our railway facilities. More than this is an unnecessary public burden; less than this means a check to railway construction and to the development of traffic.

As Mr. Charles A. Prouty, formerly Inter-State Commerce Commissioner, pointed out in his recent address before the Pan-American Scientific Congress, the real test of regulation is whether or not the business regulated will continue to pay an attractive return to investors. If it does not, nothing remains but Government ownership, for business must be served.

In the last month or two railway earnings have taken a decided turn for the better. We really seem to have rounded a corner and be on the way to better times. But the sober truth is that, although the railways have largely increased their property investment, they are not yet back at their old earnings. We cannot tell yet whether we are really going forward or are drunk with

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the strong liquor of war, poured upon some of our most important industries. We may be watering flowers with champagne.

The way railways are now regulated it is impossible to fix the responsibility anywhere. In case of a large railway system there may be half a dozen legislatures and commissions, besides Congress and the Inter-State Commerce Commission, all regulating away at one time. We see the result—the railway prostrated—but there is nobody to whom the public can say, "Thus diddest thou."

Those whose interests lie in good service ought to unite in saying, "It is time there was a captain on this boat. Every man of the crew has been running the ship to suit himself." The railways of this country have become the affair of the whole country, and only the Nation should say how they shall be run. Uncle Sam, it is up to you!

HOW TO MAKE PLAY OUT OF WORK

II—COMPETITION

BY ELLEN CHATTLE

AS the child learns to play with other children a new element of interest gradually develops. Now he not only enjoys his own activity, but he also likes to measure it with that of others, and soon his delight in this measuring becomes the chief joy of his play. He loves games, and the chance of winning stimulates him to his best effort. In fact, it is difficult to bring him to the very top of his speed or attainment without this particular stimulus. Teachers offer prizes, make competitive games out of tasks, and in every possible way pit the children against one another in order to take advantage of this instinct. Well we remember racing in multiplication problems with our little arithmetic pupil one winter. Arithmetic had palled somewhat, but this method worked like veritable magic. We set ourselves a rather severe handicap, but, aside from that, did our best. Having long ago reached our maximum, however, we were able to decrease our handicap almost daily, for the little girl went ahead by leaps. When it came to putting the map together it was not so easy, for there was but one map, but we hit upon the expedient of racing with the clock. Ten minutes, eight minutes, five minutes—at last three minutes only were needed. With sparkling eyes and flushed cheeks, the child played. It was no longer the hated arithmetic, the not too fondly loved geography; it was glorious sport. All teachers know these devices. Why should we not use them to save our work from the slough of drudgery?

There need be no ignoble spirit in competition, no envy, spite, or selfishness. But there should be a thrill in the determination that our piece of work should be done as honestly, as swiftly, as beautifully as it has been done by others. It is not only a poor workman but a wretched, apathetic soul who does not take an honest pride in his job. His state of mind is pitiable indeed when he does not care who beats him at his own work. There is nothing in religion, philosophy, or common sense that can make a virtue out of being satisfied to be at the end of the procession. Not that the place at which one starts matters; it is just as exciting to catch up with the next to the last man as with any one else in the line. Emulation, aspiration, "hitching your wagon to a star," are all developed forms of this instinct. Its varieties of application are innumerable. From the housewife of more primitive days who forgot the weariness of the family washing in her ambition to be the first to get it on the line in the morning, to the artist who is following an ideal of beauty that will not let him sleep, the same spur that keeps the child playing is still acting upon the human spirit.

In the kinds of work usually considered most interesting it is rarely absent, but it is in the humdrum tasks that we need it most. It is sometimes lacking because the worker, pegging away in his little corner, does not have an opportunity to compare his product with that of others. Exhibits of all kinds,

[1] The first article in this series appeared in The Outlook of August 23. Two other articles will follow.—THE EDITORS.

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half-holidays spent in seeing how others handle the familiar tools, meet similar difficulties, books on the subject—all aid directly in making the daily work interesting and joyous. Employers sometimes realize this and furnish conditions that awaken this spirit. But you young workers who are thoughtful enough to care to read this paper need depend upon no outside force in order to make your work feed your spirit instead of impoverishing it. To do this you must work in joy, as you played when you were a child. You will need to study the conditions of your own task. It may be a little different from any other in the world; in a sense, it must be so, since it has you in it, and you are different from any one else in the world. Then set up some kind of standard to work toward—that of a fellow-workmen or something you have read; or, best of all, some dream of your own; *race with something*. You will then work for this thing, not for a dollar a day or five dollars a day; and the difference to you no words could ever tell.

HEARD IN FRANCE

BY LESTER G. HORNBY

The author of this article is well known as one of the most brilliant of American etchers.—THE EDITORS.

THE first intimation I had of the great confidence the French have in the calm tenacity of their armies' defensive campaign came quite unexpectedly from a *cocher*. Directly after my arrival in Paris I stopped my *fiacre* long enough to read the latest *communiqué*, then drove on. True to the bonds of intimacy that entire strangers feel in Paris these days, my *cocher* turned on his box and remarked that he had a brother in the line at Verdun. "Yes, I got a letter from him only yesterday. And what do you think he wants me to send him?" I thought of shrapnel-proof vests, woolen socks, and any number of creations for the *poilu* that Paris shops now display. The *cocher*, without waiting for an answer, smiled significantly over a shrugging shoulder and told me: "Some fish-hooks—*pour pêcher à la ligne!*"

This calm, matter-of-fact spirit is wonderfully expressed in a number of the later war caricatures now shown in the print shops; but perhaps none of them treat the subject of the enemies' bombardments with greater indifference than Poulbot does in one of his inimitable lithographs. Four *poilus* are shown playing cards about a roughly made table in the scant shelter of an old and battered *abri*. One *poilu*, apparently a *nouveau*, has turned from the table to look in the direction of an exploding bomb some few feet behind him. His partner, irritated at this inattention to the game, remarks: "*Tien, mon vieux!* What in the world are you thinking about? It's your play."

Verdun! The name is heard all over France. The word has taken on a meaning vastly more important than it had a few months ago. To-day wherever Verdun is mentioned it is used almost as a synonym for victory. Nothing since the great Battle of the Marne has done more to strengthen the spirit of confidence that one feels everywhere in France than this tenacious stand at Verdun. It is at such times as these that the French spirit is so firmly welded between the people and their generals. It may not be remembered that only last year, when the French were straightening their lines of defense in the Verdun section, there was serious talk among the strategic heads of leaving Verdun outside the lines. Then the pulse of the public was felt, and the lines were extended to include Verdun.

The confidence of Paris in her defenders is constantly brought to one's notice. With the severest fighting of the war going on but fifty miles away, Paris continues to encourage every effort to establish her usual daily life. The inconsequential things, the little touches here and there that make Paris Paris, are appearing on every side. The cafés, the music-halls, and the restaurants, all reflect this spirit of confidence. I had thought from time to time of the delightful little restaurants nestled here and there among the trees of the Bois, as one often finds himself thinking in the abstract under some strong impression. This morning, after reading the latest *dépêches* on the front page of my journal, I turned the

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paper and read: "The management of the Restaurant d'Armenonville wishes to announce that its usual services will be resumed for the season 1916." Could anything be more delightfully Parisian, more inconsequential, than Armenonville?

There are those who will doubtless say, "How can Paris enjoy these restaurants and gardens with their men fighting only a few miles away?" But France is no place for sentimentality these days. It is all a part of her smile. You will find very little "I-didn't-raise-my-boy-to-be-a-soldier" attitude among French mothers. While it is true that they did not bring up their boys to be soldiers, they are ready that they should be soldiers now that they are needed. There are any number of instances among people of all classes where the mothers have done everything to help and encourage their sons to pass examinations for the service. One little fellow I know of, just graduated from his *lycée*, immediately took his first military examinations. The mental examination, although very severe, had been passed, but he was underweight. The family physician was promptly consulted as to exercises and diet for gaining weight. The whole household, his mother especially, did everything they could to help him. After a few weeks he took another examination, and passed. On leaving the examination rooms, unable to wait until he reached home, he telephoned his success. And never was a boy (and his family) more pleased with a successfully passed college examination than was this little fellow with his single stripe—which, by the way, he bought and stopped in at a friend's house to have sewn on, that his mother might see it when he reached home. During the few weeks that followed before leaving for the front a foreigner unfamiliar with the French spirit might have seen this boy, so proud of his first stripe, and thought he was through with all trials of war and off for a grand vacation. And his mother, like all Frenchwomen, knew the courage that a smile conveys with a parting word.

I have heard of any number of young fellows, given their fifteen days' *permission*, being invited to visit friends in Paris, and cheerfully sending their regrets, explaining that they really didn't feel like leaving their *camarades* for so long when they were still needed in their section. They would wait until the work was finished.

We hear all sorts of rumors of how France is losing most of her finest men and of the years it will take her to recuperate. It is true that France is paying dearly, but come with me and look at these fine bronzed fellows of the various fronts, examples of physical fitness that only roughing it in the open can produce. Look at them when they returned *en permission*, clear-eyed and robust, fairly exhaling health. Then think of the thousands of *petits officiers*, clerks, and any number of other small workers who in other times sit crouched over their desks eight and ten hours a day, and on Sundays don their narrow-shouldered black cutaways to walk in the Bois, their only open-air recreation. These are the men, thousands upon thousands of them, who are to-day showing the bloom of youth that they would never have had an opportunity to know without these months at the front. No, I cannot conscientiously look about me and feel convinced that it is all loss and no gain for the future physical welfare of France.

I dined, my last evening in Paris, with a man condemned to death. Not a very gay dinner party, you will say. Most of the guests had read in "Le Temps" that morning that Nubar Pasha had been condemned to death. In fact, Theobald Sisson, an editor of "Le Temps," was present, so it was hardly probable that we were all unaware of the strange circumstance that kept conversation away from the political situation of the East. Nubar Pasha himself seemed quite at ease and talked at length on art and music. Conversation was beginning to lag when one of the guests, familiar with the ways of the Orient, walked into the room and directly up to the condemned man, and, with the cordial air of one exchanging a New Year's greeting, grasped the Pasha's hand and remarked: "Good-evening, Nubar Pasha, I see you are condemned to death."

"Yes," said the Pasha, chuckling half to himself, as one suddenly reminded of some joyful and almost forgotten incident. "Yes, that's quite true."

The Pasha, who has probably done more than any other one person in the development of modern Egypt, reflected a few seconds, then observed good-naturedly that he felt much better after reading of his condemnation, for he had not been condemned before for five years. "Ah, yes, it's comforting to feel that one is not entirely forgotten."

At table no one stimulated the conversa-

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tion and took more interest in small talk of the day than did Nubar Pasha. Perhaps the most solemn person at dinner sat directly opposite the condemned one, an even more striking example of the deceit with which appearances often belie one's identity. The solemn man was one of America's best-known humorists.

M. Theobald Sisson sat beside me and told of his trip to Brussels for "Le Temps" during the advance of the Prussians. He mentioned one of the most curious incidents relative to the siege that I have ever heard. "We knew the general direction from which the Prussians would come, and I could not think of following the crowd leaving the city in the opposite direction without first having seen something of a definite sign of the invaders. A peasant went along with me, one who knew the country, whose senses were keen to every change of the wind. We had gone but a short way beyond the city when my companion, grasping my arm and stepping into a clump of bushes, pointed down the great stretch of white road before us. At first I saw nothing. Then I saw what might have been a little cloud of dust raised by a puff of wind; yet it could hardly be the wind, for it never left the road. This dust cloud came steadily toward us, always rising to the same height—about a meter above the road. The peasant's first remark was, 'The Prussians!' But we were curious and wanted to see. As the dust came nearer I could see behind it. There was nothing; merely the settling dust. But as it came still nearer I saw, close to the road beneath the dust cloud, a dark racing mass of life with millions of little legs—rats! Thousands upon thousands of rats, racing as fast as they could go, in a mad stampede. These countless thousands of homeless quadrupeds, driven by the Prussians from other battlefields, invaded Brussels before the besieging army. Before the dust had settled we too took to the road and entered the city, to leave again from the other side with the last of the parting Belgians."

I have an American friend whose immaculately arranged apartment overlooking the Champ de Mars is most indicative of its possessor's temperament. The furnishings, bronzes, paintings, and prints are all the choice of one who would never mistake sentimentality for sentiment. In his library one would not hesitate to ask about a certain volume on account of the apparent chastity of its unexplored pages; Kant, Carlyle, and Spencer, as well as Daudet, de Maupassant, and Baudelaire, show their pages equally worn.

As most of my traveling arrangements are planned on the spur of the moment, I often arrive in Paris unexpectedly and unannounced, yet I am always confident of finding my friends taking my arrival as a usual course of events. I can—and, what is more, I did on recently arriving from the Mediterranean—drop in after a year's absence quite as unannounced as if I had been expected. There were the usual greetings and inquiries, during which my friend's ever-attending Frederick had set another place at table and an interrupted luncheon continued.

I knew my friend's love for France well enough to learn without surprise of the part he was playing now. "I gave considerable thought," he went on, "as to how my modest efforts could be of service, and, as a result, I have a list of several hundred names of men at the front who have been cut off from communication with their families, now in the enemy's territory." After luncheon he took me to his "storeroom." Pipes, tobacco, cigarettes, shirts, and packages of all sorts of things that one man would choose for another filled the room. "This part is nothing. I have set aside a monthly allowance for all this; but I find the things that these men appreciate more than anything else are the letters from some one personally interested in them. I correspond with every one of them. And do you know what they think most about—the things that impress these bearded men of the trenches? You would be surprised. One fellow wrote that he was sending me a souvenir from his trench. I thought of some of the various battlefield relics that I had seen from time to time—shells, sabers, enemies' canteens, etc. But do you know what I found when I opened the carefully folded inclosure? Violets! Three little violets pressed between paper with the inscription: '*Ils sont jolie, n'est ce pas?* I found them growing in a corner of my trench.'

"I went to a matinée at the Opéra Comique a while ago. 'La Fille du Régiment' was being produced that afternoon, I believe. It was one of the performances at which Chenal sang 'La Marseillaise.' I strolled out into the foyer during the *entr'acte*—that delightfully French intermission when one takes tea, has a few words here and there with one's friends, and discusses the per-

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formance. Walking just in front of me were three soldiers, privates, in their old uniforms of faded gray. I noticed that the two outside fellows, although using crutches to which they were hardly accustomed, were very attentive to the little fellow between them. As far as I could see, he was not wounded. Walking ahead of them, I saw that he was blind. Here he was helping to support a comrade on each arm, they in turn taking the greatest interest in describing the scenes of the past act. All were enthusiastically discussing the opera. The *entr'acte* finished and every one seated, a breathless silence fell over the audience. Marthe Chenal, a superb figure, draped in the tricolor of France, suggesting in form the Victory of Samothrace, appeared on the stage. In a voice half human, half divine, she sang 'La Marseillaise.' No artist ever put her whole being into a work more than did Marthe Chenal when she sang this wonder of national songs. I tried to hold back tears—to tell myself that it was all theatrical, a play on sentiment. I was successful for a while, until the part came where the music stops and Chenal, dropping on one knee, kisses the flag. Every eye in that theater was glistening with tears. Strong, bearded men shed tears like children; there were sobs on all sides. I thought of the invalid soldiers I had seen walking in the foyer, and looked out over the audience to find them. I was unsuccessful for some time. Then, away up in a little third-tier box, leaning far over the balustrade, I saw these three boys, straining all their senses to hear. The little blind fellow's face was radiant. He was beaming down, leaning as far over as his comrades, just as though he saw it all. And when the final notes died away his hands, already raised, were brought down in applause as loud and appreciative as any in the theater. His face fairly glowed for La Patrie."

While sitting over *apéritif* at one of the café terraces of the Rue Royal my friend who is doing much for the *poilus* at the front leaned toward me, and, casting a glance in the direction of a table near by, remarked: "You see that *distingué* old colonel, that fine-looking old type sitting there with the two younger officers? That is the Duc de Chose. I just now overheard one of the younger officers introduce him to the other as his father." I was interested to see the Duke, for, like many others, I had long known his house with its prim box-planted garden facing on the Étoile. But why was my friend so interested in him? My curiosity was soon gratified when he continued: "You will be interested in the strange and surprising little chain of events that this introduction overheard just now recalls.

"It was last winter. I had been invited to Christmas dinner with friends in the Étoile, and stood at the École Militaire, waiting for my tram. The sky had been overcast all morning, and grew darker until that chill mist so characteristic of Paris winter days began to fall and reflect the cold gray of the sky in the wet streets and roofs. It was the sort of cheerless Christmas that would make one drop a franc instead of a sou in the beggar's box. The tram was late, and the few people waiting pulled up the hoods of their *pèlerines* and stood in the scant shelter of the *arrêt*. Standing apart from the others, a soldier, tired and travel worn, stood oblivious, or it may have been indifferent, to the rain. He wore an old blue cape of the early uniform, so faded and worn that its original color was entirely lost. The soldier fumbled beneath his cape and brought forth the broken end of a rough loaf of bread and commenced to eat. I thought of the joy it would give this *poilu's* family to have him with them for Christmas dinner, perhaps in some far-off province. I thought of the friends I was going to join at dinner and wondered if this poor fellow had friends in Paris, or was he among the great number cut off from his family and friends by the enemy's lines, without even knowing if they were still living? When he had finished his bread, I went up to him and offered him a cigarette. Then, emptying my cigarette case, I gave him what was in it. He hesitated a moment, but took the cigarette and thanked me. We discussed the latest *communiqué*, and when the belated tram arrived we got aboard together. We were in the first class, and when the conductor came my *poilu* acquaintance insisted on paying the fares. I could not refuse. He plainly wanted to reciprocate on this occasion, yet I realized that the difference between the price of one second class, where soldiers generally rode, and two of first class was more than a *poilu's* day's pay. I felt a qualm of conscience, although at the same time I could see that to object would complicate matters. We talked on until our tram reached its destination at the Étoile. Since we were not on time, I felt uneasy about my dinner engagement, and while crossing the *Place* I felt for my watch.

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I had forgotten to take it with me. My *poilu* companion understood my movement, and, raising his left arm with a slight hitch to throw back his cape, displayed one of the most beautiful diamond-studded wrist watches that I have ever seen.

" 'I should like to walk farther with monsieur, but I am dining here with my father to-day, and it is already the hour.'

" We had stopped beside the house of the Duc de Chose. A butler in livery had opened the door and stood at attention while we shook hands and exchanged Christmas greetings."

One of the young officers sitting with the Duke caught my friend's glance and saluted him. " He," continued my friend, " is my young *poilu* acquaintance of Christmas Day."

I was riding recently in the Côte d'Azure Rapide between Nice and Marseilles when a young aide-de-camp of the British general's staff stationed at Marseilles came into my compartment and took the place opposite me. As usual among strangers traveling in the same compartment, we fell into conversation, and became quite congenial companions. He had been stationed with the British headquarters at Marseilles since the beginning of the war, and had a number of interesting stories, one of the best of which he told when I asked him about the reception that had recently been given the Russians on their arrival there. I asked him how the French regarded it, and what sort of looking fellows they were. " Oh, very well. Very well, indeed. Fine-looking fellows, well set up; and they have been received with open arms. In fact, we Britishers, having been there since early in the war, have lost a good deal of the shine on our buttons. We are an old story now, and go about unnoticed, while the whole town has given the Russians, now landing for the first time, *carte blanche.* Only a few days ago General Hall was mistaken for a Russian—a very natural mistake when the shade of khaki now used in the British uniform is compared with the shade of khaki the Russians are using. The officers' caps are almost identical. It was just as some of the Russians were disembarking that General Hall arrived from England, and, driving down along the *quais*, he was greeted by cheers of '*Vive la Russe!*' first by a few people, then it so spread that people in cafés stood on chairs and tables, leaned from windows, and rushed in from side streets, cheering at the top of their voices. The British general took in the situation, bowed right and left, and, leaning forward in his seat, calmly tapped his chauffeur on the shoulder, remarking, 'I say, my good fellow, be very careful not to exceed the ten-mile limit along here.' "

In these little Mediterranean towns and in the country between them thousands and thousands of blacks are encamped among the palm and olive trees. They are mostly red-fezzed Senegalese, living exactly as I had seen them in Africa some eight years before, during the French troubles in Morocco. The whining music of their Oriental pipes and tom-toms asserted itself as several companies marched up to one of the stations on their way north. As various scents recall vivid details of forgotten events, so, by some strange trick of memory, I found myself thinking of one day in Edinburgh when I stood sketching in the old Canongate of High Street. The changing guard of the palace, four red-coated kilties in hats of bearskin, a piper at their head, marched up through the grim walls of the Canongate to the castle. It was the strange likeness in the warlike music of these Oriental pipes to the whining bagpipe that recalled this incident from the old capital of the north. Their tones were almost identical.

These Mediterranean towns, especially about Cannes and Nice, have a strange touch of color these days. Not only the varying costumes of these Orientals and the French, English, and Russians, but also occasional Belgians, and great numbers of the people whose country no longer exists—the Servians. At Monte Carlo, Nice, and Cannes one sees any number of Servian officers, in their fawn-colored swagger coats with skirts reaching to the ground. They are living in the finest hotels on the Riviera, and all for eight francs a day; it is the maximum price for an officer's *pension.* These fellows are living here like princes (and some of them still are in name). Like a great number of Belgians, they are guests of the French Government. One of the most delightful islands along the Riviera, Isle Ste. Marguerite, in the Bay of Cannes, is a detention camp for interned countrymen of the enemy.

There is no bravado, no swagger, to the man from the front in these days. I met a young lieutenant who had a scar on each cheek, where a stray shrapnel had entered and left. " The scar on the left is larger,

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you see, for it took a little piece of bone out with it. Like the shells that enter houses, the point of exit of the shell is always larger than its entering point." He wore the Croix de Guerre, the Croix Militaire, and the Croix de la Legion d'Honneur. Later on several other officers joined us. They were all men with military honors and men who were constantly mentioned in the *dépêches* from the front, and known all over France, yet the events of the field were talked about in the most modest and usual manner that one might speak of any daily event. War is no longer a novelty in France; it is a part of the every-day life—a business that is now going along with the ease and accuracy of any firmly established organization. The individual incidents are lost in the great scope of the task in hand. Not that the individual, the wounded, the women working as teamsters and freight-handlers, are forgotten or overlooked; not at all. Yet it is all looked upon as a part of it, no one considering for a moment his individual sacrifice.

I recall particularly a young fellow, a keen, bright-eyed youth of twenty-two, who was brought in from the Verdun section to the American Ambulance at Neuilly. He had lost both arms above the elbow, both feet, and a leg, and had several minor body wounds. I had seen hundreds of wounded that day, and had marveled at their extraordinary courage and ever-ready smile. I knew what it meant as we moved among their cots to feel the warm response to a few words here, a cigarette there, and even a glance in passing. I had heard time and again, in response to the nurses' queries, that most expressive and wonderfully French "*ça va.*" And so it was with this young fellow when the nurse, taking me to his bedside, inquired if everything was going well. "*Mais oui, madame, ça va!*" And his smile seemed to be luminous as he listened to my friend tell of the new artificial arms that had hands of which all the fingers were articulate, and how another boy who also had lost his arms had become so accustomed to his new appliance that he could pick up a visiting-card quite as easily as before, and was already writing letters. "Ah, yes; I am sure it won't take me long to learn to use it. I was never slow at school." My friend then went on to tell of another young *blessé* he had recently visited who, having lost his sight, was being taught to read and write again. When he had finished telling of the blind boy, the young fellow lying there without arms or feet remarked, most sympathetically, "*Pauvre malheureux!* It must be hard to lose one's sight."

BOOKS ABOUT CHILDREN

BY SIDONIE MATZNER GRUENBERG

AUTHOR OF "SONS AND DAUGHTERS," "YOUR CHILD TO-DAY AND TO-MORROW," ETC.

IT is characteristic of our integrating civilization that more and more of value is constantly being provided for children through the public schools and through other organized agencies. It is even more significant that, notwithstanding the increased attention given to the welfare of children by these various social agencies, the demand upon the parents is increasing all the time. Parenthood is becoming, it would seem, a professionalized calling. This is indicated in part by the formation of organizations devoted to the systematic study of the problems of parenthood; and it is indicated by the rapid growth of special literature dealing with these problems.

Books for parents are not, it is true, altogether new phenomena. But whereas earlier literature in this class was confined to counse and sermons on the moral training of the child, based on experience or theologies, the books of to-day have to do with principles of physical and mental growth, and are based increasingly on the results of scientific investigations. Like the better books for teachers and physicians, they contain a minimum of solemn platitudes and earnest exhortation, and a maximum of verified facts and hypotheses.

Until within our own time scientific books about children were written only for pedagogues. Parents were, for the most part, expected to rely upon their "instincts." The results of physiological and hygienic studies were then diluted for the benefit of mothers,

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to help reduce infant mortality and to give helpful advice for use in various emergencies. And books on the physical care of the child have followed with reasonable promptness all the important discoveries made by medical science.

The "Child Study" movement, which is some twenty-odd years old, supplied printed matter at first only for the special student of psychology or pedagogy. Later the results of these studies became available for the class-room teacher. Now the most valuable contributions of investigators in this field are accessible to the parent without special training through the books addressed directly to him or her.

This new literature for parents—and for teachers as well—differs from the earlier writings in one other respect. Instead of containing detailed advice and recipes, like so many of the cruder housekeeping magazines and books, the new literature develops principles and cultivates attitudes. To indicate the application of the principles there is usually an abundance of concrete illustrations. But the progressive scientific temper is indicated by the gradual disappearance of rules to be followed absolutely—the "always" or "never" attitude which has the outward appearance of confidence and certainty, but which is attained only by deliberately ignoring half of life's realities.

PHYSICAL CARE OF THE CHILD

The Health-Care of the Baby. By Louis Fischer. Funk. 75c.

The Health-Care of the Growing Child. By Louis Fischer. Funk. $1.25.

Very helpful books on questions of diet, hygiene, development, and prevention of disease, for the earliest years and the latter years of childhood, respectively.

The Healthy Baby. By Roger H. Dennett. Macmillan. $1.

A practical book of directions for the daily care of the normal child, containing useful tables.

Infancy and Childhood. By Walter Reeve Ramsay. Dutton. $1.25.

A reliable handbook on the physical care of the child, common ailments, etc.

CHILD STUDY

The Boy Problem in the Home. By William Byron Forbush. Pilgrim Press. $1.25.

Home government, sex education, and religious training are discussed for the young boy, the school-boy, and the adolescent boy.

The Coming Generation. By William Byron Forbush. Appleton. $1.50.

Deals especially with the child in his social relations—in the home, the gang, the school, the playground, the club, and religious organizations.

Essentials of Character. By Edward O. Sisson. Macmillan. $1.

Stimulating treatment of the relation of the home atmosphere, and of the attitude of parents, etc., the native tendencies of the child, self-activity, habits, etc.

Fundamentals of Child Study. By E. A. Kirkpatrick. Macmillan. $1.25.

One of the best books for parents to use as a basis for child study. It takes up all the psychological and other factors in human development with practical applications. The author writes both as an expert and a father.

High School Age. By Irving King. Bobbs-Merrill. $1.

The physical and mental characteristics of boys and girls in their teens, and the practical problems of education, work, and play are discussed simply and sanely. The book should be especially useful to parents seeking to understand the new educational efforts of the schools.

Honesty. By William Healy. Bobbs-Merrill. $1.

A study of the developmental, and environmental causes of lying and stealing, with suggestions for corrective applications.

CHILD STUDY.—*Continued*

Home, School, and Vacation. By Annie Winsor Allen. Houghton. $1.25.

How to regulate home interests, school work, play, and vacation sports in accordance with the principles of good education.

The Individual in the Making. By E. A. Kirkpatrick. Houghton. $1.25.

A study of the child's mind in all stages of its development, the object being to provide "a chart by which to guide the child into the most favoring channels and past the most serious dangers."

An Introduction to Child Study. By W. B. Drummond. Longmans. $1.70.

A simple, helpful book dealing with all the facts of growth—the senses, the nervous system, instincts, habits, etc.

Mind in the Making. By Edgar James Swift. Scribner. $1.50.

Studies of mind and character development during adolescence, with discussion of practical applications.

Moral Instruction of Children. By Felix Adler. Appleton. $1.50.

One of the earliest and best contributions toward the solution of the problem of moral instruction of children from six to fourteen or fifteen years of age, with a discussion of the methods according to which this kind of instruction should be imparted.

Mothers and Children. By Dorothy Canfield Fisher. Holt. $1.25.

A book of essays on the problems of the child in the family, and on the creation of a harmonious home atmosphere.

On the Training of Parents. By Ernest H. Abbott. Houghton. 75c.

A short volume of essays emphasizing the important factors in child life and principles of child training.

Principles of Character Making. By Arthur Holmes. Lippincott. $1.25.

Good summary of the psychological factors in child development and child training. Helpful chapters on heredity, instincts, making and breaking of habits, play, self, the will, ideals, moral instruction.

Sons and Daughters. By Sidonie Matzner Gruenberg. Holt. $1.40.

A series of short illuminating discussions of concrete problems arising in child training, from infancy to adolescence.

NOTE.—In the references to publishers of books "Appleton" stands for D. Appleton & Co., New York; "Bobbs-Merrill," for the Bobbs-Merrill Co., Indianapolis; "Dodd," for Dodd, Mead & Co., New York; "Doubleday," for Doubleday, Page & Co., New York; "Duffield," for Duffield & Co., New York; "Dutton," for E. P. Dutton & Co., New York; "Funk," for the Funk & Wagnalls Co., New York; "Ginn," for Ginn & Co., Boston; "Harper," for Harper & Brothers, New York; "Holt," for Henry Holt & Co., New York; "Houghton," for Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston; "Jacobs," for the G. W. Jacobs Co., Philadelphia; "Lane," for the John Lane Co., New York; "Lippincott," for the J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia; "Longmans," for Longmans, Green & Co., New York; "McClurg," for A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago; "Macmillan," for the Macmillan Co., New York; "Moffat," for Moffat, Yard & Co., New York; "Pilgrim Press," for the Pilgrim Press, Boston; "Revell," for the Fleming H. Revell Co., New York; "Scribner," for Charles Scribner's Sons, New York; "Whitcomb & Barrows," for Whitcomb & Barrows, Boston.

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CHILD STUDY.—*Continued*

Studies of Childhood. By James Sully. Appleton. $2.50.
Studies valuable for an understanding of the child up to its sixth year; dealing with imagination, reason, child thought, fear.

The Use of Money. By E. A. Kirkpatrick. Bobbs-Merrill. $1.
A valuable book offering to parents principles and practical suggestions. Discusses such topics as allowances, earning and spending money, business dealings with children, and children's savings.

PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION

All the Children of All the People. By Willian Hawley Smith. Macmillan. $1.50.
A work on the vast problem of a comprehensive popular education, interesting, suggestive, and useful to parents and teachers.

Democracy and Education. By John Dewey. Macmillan. $1.50.
A most significant and profound analysis of the general aspects of child training in modern society.

Education and the Larger Life. By C. Hanford Henderson. Houghton. $1.30.
Suggestive and helpful reflections on the larger aims of education.

Educational Problems. By G. Stanley Hall. Appleton. $7.50.
A large two-volume collection of the author's papers. Deals with almost every educational subject, and is divided roughly into problems of the home and problems of the school.

Schools of To-Morrow. By John Dewey. Dutton. $1.50.
Description of types of education, developed experimentally in recent years, with a discussion of their adaptation to the needs of the present and the immediate future.

What Is It To Be Educated? By C. Hanford Henderson. Houghton. $1.50.
Practical suggestions as well as philosophical discussions on the relation of adults to children, and on the educational direction of life.

Youth: Its Education, Regimen, and Hygiene. By G. Stanley Hall. Appleton. $1.50.
An epitome of the author's larger work on "Adolescence." A good book for parents as an introduction to the subject.

EUGENICS AND HEREDITY

Being Well-Born. By Michael F. Guyer. Bobbs-Merrill. $1.
A very clear explanation of the facts and principles of heredity, and of their bearing on the problems of race improvement.

Euthenics: The Science of Controllable Environment. By Ellen H. Richards. Whitcomb & Barrows. $1.
"A plea for better living conditions as a first step toward higher human efficiency." Shows relations of various public, semi-public, and private agencies with special regard to health. Application of science to better living conditions.

The Kallikak Family. By Henry H. Goddard. Macmillan. $1.50.
The author shows the significance of heredity by tracing the descendants of a Revolutionary soldier who had two children, one by a half-witted servant, the other by a woman of sound stock.

Parenthood and Race Culture. By C. W. Saleeby. Moffat. $2.50.
Treats interestingly of the social aspects of parenthood, of race strength, and of the factors that enhance or detract from the forces of the race.

APPRECIATIONS OF CHILD LIFE

The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn.
The Adventures of Tom Sawyer. By Mark Twain. Harper. $1.75 each.
Although entertaining for boys and girls, the author's idea was partially, as he said, "to try to pleasantly remind adults of what they once were themselves and of how they felt and thought and talked, and what queer enterprises they sometimes engaged in."

A Boy's Town. By William Dean Howells. Harper. $1.25.
The writer's recollections of boyhood days in an Ohio town.

APPRECIATIONS OF CHILD LIFE.—*Continued*

The Bent Twig. By Dorothy Canfield Fisher. Holt. $1.35.
Intimate picture of American home life; an interesting portrayal of the relationship between parent and child, and a most illuminating study of the adolescent girl.

The Child in the House. By Walter Pater. Dodd. 25c.
An exquisite interpretation of a sensitive, retiring child; a classic.

Emmy Lou. By George Madden Martin. Doubleday. $1.50.
A delightfully sympathetic and delicately humorous account of a girl from nine to twelve years, showing profound insight into a child's feeling.

The Golden Age. By Kenneth Grahame. Lane. $2.50.
A series of sketches of child life as seen by a man who looks backward with love to the "golden age." Highly imaginative and poetical, yet humorous and realistic.

My Little Boy. By Carl Ewald. Scribner. $1.
The fruit of careful observation of his own children and those of others; the style combines a simplicity of expression and narrative that gives them a charm which is all their own.

Phœbe and Ernest. By Inez Haynes Gillmore. Holt. $1.50.
From the wholesome, amusing pictures of the high school and college life of the brother and sister one can obtain insight into the problems of older children.

PLAY AND RECREATION

Children's Play and Its Place in Education. By Walter Wood. Duffield. $1.25.
Theory, history, and conduct of play in education; play and game periods for boys and girls.

Education by Plays and Games. By George E. Johnson. Ginn. 90c.
Practical suggestions and descriptions of games, with emphasis on the educational value of play.

Festivals and Plays in Schools and Elsewhere. By Percival Chubb and Associates. Harper. $2.
Specimen programmes and practical suggestions as to costumes, music, etc., with bibliography.

Games for the Playground, Home, School, and Gymnasium. By Jessie H. Bancroft. Macmillan. $1.50.
Theory and history of play in education; graded games, with directions, from infancy to adolescence.

Manual of Play. By William Byron Forbush. Jacobs. $1.50.
Describes fitting up of home playroom and playground; graded games and toys; forms of play and activity through which children express themselves.

SEX EDUCATION

Girl and Woman. By Caroline Wormeley Latimer. Appleton. $1.50.
Helpful in understanding and dealing with the physical, mental, and moral disturbances of girlhood and early womanhood. Some of the recommendations, particularly regarding physical aspects, are open to question, since they deal with mooted points.

Sex. By Patrick Geddes and J. Arthur Thomson. Holt. 50c.
The biological aspects of sex; also interesting chapters on sex education, the ethics of sex, and sex and society. Good bibliography.

Sex Education. By Ira S. Wile. Duffield. $1.
An excellent little volume for the purpose of assisting parents to banish the difficulties and to suggest a plan for developing a course in sex education. The chapter on terminology is most helpful.

The Sexual Life of the Child. By Albert Moll. Macmillan. $1.75.
An exhaustive study of the origin and development, in childhood and youth, of the acts and feelings due to sex. Indispensable to any one interested in sex education.

Training of the Young in Laws of Sex. By E. Lyttleton. Longmans. $1.
A brief presentation, from a lofty point of view, of the many phases of the sex problem as it confronts the boy.

Several books on sex, written originally for children, have been found of special help to parents in supplying methods of approach and a useful vocabulary.

Healthy Boyhood. By Arthur Trewby. Longmans. 40c.
The Renewal of Life. By Margaret W. Morley. McClurg. $1.25.
The Spark of Life. By Margaret W. Morley. Revell. 25c.
The Three Gifts of Life. By Nellie M. Smith. Dodd. 50c.

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NEGLECTING OUR CHILDREN WISELY

BY HELEN JOHNSON KEYES

THE only preparation for a successful maturity is a successful childhood. Children are not defective adults, ignorant, weak-minded little men and women, whose feeble powers we must spend twelve or fifteen years "bringing out," till they attain the adult ideal. Children are children. They feel differently, react differently, judge differently, from grown-ups. They must pass honestly, eagerly, pugnaciously, through the phases of childhood, and by means of them fight their way naturally to a comprehension of adult standards, or else they will not be the best kind of men and women, because they have not been successful children—children who have found things out at first hand. By the best kind of men and women I mean the kind which does not imitate blindly, but thinks and acts with independence.

Successful children! There is something almost comical to us about the idea. Yet as we ponder it groups of boys and girls, conjured from many memories, rise before us. They are not in a school-room; they are out of doors. They are jumping, wriggling, somersaulting—thinking with their entire bodies, as somebody has said. Eyes are snapping with the joy of really seeing what they are looking at; pockets bulge with fishing-tackle; bare feet lose their grip on the slippery stones of brooks, and there are splashes; skirts flutter in cherry trees and balloon from swings. Why is it that such scenes as these are the response we get when we try to think what is meant by that startling phrase, "successful children"? Why do we not see them in their school groups? I think it is because we know (if only we *don't* stop to think, and therefore think wrong) that these playing children are splendidly in earnest, that they are very, very busy. Their play does not correspond to the diversion of adults, that relaxation of weary faculties when we seek to do nothing and let some one or something amuse us. Far more, it corresponds to our work. It is a business, an art, a pursuit of ideals. Stanley Hall says that children do not play from excess of energy, any more than Raphael painted from excess of paint. This phrase reveals in a flash the compulsion, the rapture, the seriousness, of free play to a child. The saturation of his entire nature with what he is doing is in itself an inspired preparation for life. The power of saturation is one of the driving forces of success. It makes art; it makes big business; it seizes new relations in science.

Æsop has a fable about a deer which, seeing his reflection in a stream, was greatly fascinated by his antlers, but displeased with his legs. Presently he was pursued by an enemy and fled swiftly. His legs had about rescued him when his antlers caught in the underbrush and held him fast, so that, after all, the enemy captured him. I am inclined to think that our home-training system for children is a good deal like the deer. It is proud of its ornamental appendages, its many-branched theories of guidance and development, but inappreciative of the sinewy, common-sense legs given it for progression.

Not long ago I read in a manuscript intended for a pedagogical journal this sentence: "Because of the dangerous diffuseness of our children's imaginations we should discourage their wild and aimless play and guide their activities into paths which lead to definite goals."

This theorist disregarded the power of self-education. By narrower paths are meant, I presume, the activities of the kindergarten, Montessori, and other methods, while the definite goals are nice sense perceptions and muscular adjustments. The excellence of the processes and results is beyond dispute, but they are elementary study, and we should not allow them to substitute for "aimless play" out of school, nor should we pinch and squeeze the free-play instincts into those grooves which we have designed for the neat and timely—or pre-timely—unfolding of special faculties during academic hours. "Most doing," says John Dewey, in his "Schools of To-Morrow," "will lead only to superficial muscle training if it is dictated to the child and prescribed for him step by step." The function of play is different from this and more vital.

The truth is, we are applying to education so many splendid methods of sense and muscle training, we are watching so many heartening results from organized and supervised play, that mothers are confusing these new expedients with play itself, and are losing

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respect for those rich, fertile hours of freedom before the school age and after school hours when, blissfully neglected, children attain that strength, honesty, and power to think for themselves which result only from undergoing experiences at first hand.

After studying for long years the play of animals and of man, Karl Groos decided that children do not play because they are young, but are kept young for an extended period in order that they may play and thus train themselves for the infinitely complex relations of adult life. Free play, he says, is pre-experience, by means of which are developed those powers of action which are necessary to survival in human society. If it is this, surely no special or precocious attainments can compensate for the lack of it.

Have special accomplishments, indeed, or the attainment of definite goals any value in little childhood? Has the child who "explodes into reading" at six years of age any advantage over the child of equal endowment who does not read till he is eight years old? The probability is that he will not even be ahead of him in school at twelve. And the precocious student will have lost, in the pursuit of his definite goal, time which might have brought him into contact with realities, thus stimulating his imagination and giving balance to his young judgments, instead of merely grafting onto his memory symbols which he is too immature to use. No, in childhood, because it is outside of the economic struggle, we are free to neglect formal standards and the passports of education into the world of employment, and to allow freedom of growth to those qualities of heart and mind which will be the driving powers of mature life and give vitality at last and speed to formal learning. "It is a good thing," says Pestalozzi, "to make a child read, write, learn, and repeat; but it is still better to make a child think." And Compayré warns us: "Allow the child who is beginning to think the largest liberty. Do not bend his intelligence to artificial forms."

We need to have a deeper, a more steadfast faith in our children and in the laws of childhood. Much of our training, unhappily, is an effort to overcome, to supplant those laws. We are full of zeal to inculcate the rules which are necessary to adult society, and we forget that wisdom is only skin deep when it is acquired by listening to commandments and repeating them, and that to be organic it must be attained by passing through experiences which convince us of the value of those commandments. The habit of facing experiences squarely makes the able man and the able woman. Childhood is a great storage time for experiences, and according as these have been vital, according as they have been real and intense to the child, so will the maturity of that child be. Without this rich background of realities his maturity will lack depth and conviction. Society will have another parrot.

The play experiences of childhood should be lived in the atmosphere of the father's and mother's constant, pervasive sympathy and comprehension. But his world of pre-experience must be explored, conquered, subdued, by the child himself. When the adult steps in to guide, to instruct, to impose mature opinions, she forces the child whom she interrupts to accept facts at second hand, and so mutilates the purpose of free play, pre-experience, and leads him into the pernicious habit, which will impair his value as a citizen, of letting other people make up his mind for him. There is a theory that intervention may be so artfully performed as to leave the child unconscious that it has occurred. This subtle form of instruction has its great value in certain connections, but applied to free play it should be used only as an occasional expedient, not as a guiding principle.

How ignorant we are, after all, we mothers! How little we know of what the future is going to demand from our children, or of what their deepest thoughts and emotions are! How are we justified in breaking into their enchanted world and with our officious hands shattering the enchantment in order to carry them over into our world of commonplaces, to follow *our* paths to *our* goals? Were we omniscient, we might make education definite, and from earliest infancy train Maud to be an actress, and Kate to be a home economist; but we are all in the dark. The best we can do is to make women of both of them. Compared to what there is to know, we are all ignoramuses, and therefore what education should seek to convey is not so much knowledge, in the sense of facts, as the desire and power to pounce down on the sets of facts which specially we need and to make them our instruments. Unguided play must supplement school work if we are to have this vision and this freedom of initiative.

What are the qualities which give men and

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women control over themselves, their associates, and their business in life?

Imagination and invention, that balancing of quick perception and combination with action which is the essence of play.

Judgment, the fruit of hard and lonely pre-experience.

Courage, attained by measuring one's self against implacable facts, as children do in their unsupervised adventures.

Justice, the Golden Rule of play.

Loyalty, which is accorded most freely by youth to youth in leadership.

The feeling for mass suggestion, which is born only of wide and democratic associations through early life.

The power of adjustment, that grinding down of our egoism on the whetstones of other people's egoism; and the whetstones of childhood grind exceeding sharp!

Kindness (which every man would act upon if every man had lived close enough to other human hearts truly to feel their desires and agonies), made instinctive by the intimate glimpses of play comradeship.

Patience, that "night behind the stars," which abides in hearts that have sensed the long processes of nature.

Idealism, the adult form of the play spirit.

Mothers in an increasing number are realizing that a woman's duty to her children is really to them, and not to herself through them. I mean that these more imaginative mothers perceive the life of the child as a thing separate from their own comfort to-day or to-morrow, and make every sacrifice to grant their boys and girls the powers and the training which will prepare them to live their own lives. These mothers have no easy or peaceful task. The birch rod and its successive modifications, actual and figurative, were much simpler instruments than a *wise* neglect can ever be. We have learned, however (to quote John Dewey again), that "dogmatic methods which prescribe and make for docility and passivity, not only become ineffective in modern society, but they actually hinder the development of the largest possibilities of society."

The parents of wisely neglected children (who are altogether different from selfishly or carelessly or ignorantly neglected children) sacrifice their own convenience, their own culture and friends, perhaps, in order to create a natural environment for the youngsters. They live in the country. Probably the school is not altogether satisfactory, and the mother must supplement its work by much home training. Wisely neglected children are not bought up for nickels and dimes and disposed of at "movies" which are not intended for little folks and which are, when they become a habit, a menace to the child's inventiveness and powers of play. They are not sacrificed to the goddesses of shopping and elaborate parties; they do not perform tricks for admiring relatives. They are given an environment in which they grow spontaneously, wherein they live with realities and rehearse race history in their play—Stanley Hall says that every child is an omnibus in which all of his ancestors ride—and so advance intelligently to meet us grown-ups on our own ground. Children cannot understand or do what is unrelated to their experiences, so, if we want them to be efficient, we must make their experiences rich and various.

Outside of school hours, wisely neglected children are educated in the main by environment instead of by mandate. They are usually honest children, and grow up with a scorn of sham and pretense and vain repetitions. Gathering about them the host of witnesses from the past, which they have explored, they sometimes march forward into our puzzled world with messages and solutions.

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BY THE WAY

Rupert Brooke, the English poet who not long ago met a soldier's death, has been awarded, posthumously, the Henry Howland memorial prize of $1,500, given by Yale University every second year to "the citizen of any country for marked distinction in literature, fine arts, or the science of government."

In a recent record trip across the continent by automobile an official of the American Defense Society left the automobile at Syracuse, New York, and went to Omaha by railway. He arrived at the latter city only thirteen minutes ahead of the motor car.

French briar is the wood most used for making pipes. Little of this wood is now coming to this country, and substitutes for it are being sought for. Of these, mountain laurel is considered the best. Other woods suggested are apple wood, red gum, ebony, and birch.

Economical people will save old paper now, for it is bringing high prices. At an auction sale in New York City recently a lot of 6,000 pounds brought $2.60 a hundred pounds. In normal times it would have brought only from 20 to 50 cents a hundred pounds.

There are still to be seen in some parts of Ireland peasants wearing the old-fashioned costume—tall hat, swallow-tail coat, knee-breeches, and low boots. A writer in "The Wide World" prints a photograph of one of these survivors, and says that there are only six of them left in the entire country.

A new typewriter that may be of use in Government or confidential correspondence has been put on the market. By means of a cipher-determining plate, *100,000,000 different* combinations may be made in using a confidential code. The message is written in the ordinary way on a standard keyboard, but when "a" is struck by the user, "x" may appear on the paper, and so on.

The largest single steel order ever handled through the port of Philadelphia, an exchange states, is for a vast shipment of steel cars for French railways. The first installment of the order, 300 cars, goes by the steamship Camlake, and this and another ship will be employed for several months in filling the order.

A library of five hundred volumes was recently sold for about $500,000. It was the Christie-Miller collection of Americana, one of the most famous of its kind in the world. One set of books in this library, Theodore de Bry's "Voyages to America," is valued at $20,000. The purchaser was George D. Smith, of New York.

A motion picture magazine nominates for the "meanest man" a certain joker. One of his fellow-actors had to take a part as baggage-smasher. He wrestled with a huge trunk before the camera, carried it up the front steps, dropped it on his toes, tore his trousers, and finally nearly broke his neck when it got away from him. The "meanest man," standing by convulsed with laughter, at the end of the ordeal suggested to the manager that the scene was very flat and that his friend ought to do it all over again!

An odd advertisement in an English journal reads: "Globes for Crystal Gazing: Medium-size Globe 6 shillings 6 pence; larger, 8 shillings 6 pence." Elsewhere is this statement: "Joseph is supposed to have practiced a form of divination by means of a silver cup into the depths of which he gazed—no doubt similar to the 'divining crystal' which was in use among the ancient Egyptians and has been resorted to by seers ever since."

"John, there's a burglar in the bath-room!" whispered Mrs. Watchful to her tired husband as she woke him up with a cautious dig. And John answered (a subscriber vouches for the dialogue): "Well, let him stay; no doubt he needs badly enough what he will find there!"

Describing a feat performed in the "Stampede" contest, the New York "Sun" says: "The big event of the day, the steer bull-dogging contest, was won by Bill Rickett, a grandfather and the man who invented this sort of contest. It took Bill twenty-six seconds to ride after a flying steer, launch himself from his saddle onto the head of the steer, throw him, and hold him down." Later the feat was performed in a still shorter time.

The frightful destruction of forests by shot and shell in Belgium and northern France is described in a recent article in "American Forestry." The writer says: "It would not be at all surprising to learn, when the war is over, that there remains on Belgian soil no timber of commercial value; that her scenic forests have been wiped out; and that thousands of her roadside and street trees have been used for fuel and for other purposes by the Germans. In northern France, on both sides of the fighting front, great damage has been done the forests, not only by the tremendous bombardments which have marked the fighting there and by the hail of bullets from small arms which have swept divested spaces, but by the trench-builders, the road engineers, and others who needed timber for construction work.

"Sir," said the angry woman, as reported by the Topeka "Journal," "I understand you said I had a face that would stop a street car in the middle of the block." "Yes, that's what I said," was the calm answer; "it takes an unusually handsome face to induce a motorman to make a stop like that."

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